THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER.

VOL. II.

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER;

CONTAINING

Particular Descriptions

OF THE

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, PRINCIPALITIES, PROVINCES, CITIES, TOWNS, DISTRICTS, FORTRESSES, HARBOURS, RIVERS, LAKES, &c.

OF

HINDOSTAN,

AND THE ADJACENT COUNTRIES,

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

AND THE

EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO;

TOGETHER WITH

SKETCHES OF THE MANNERS, CUSTOMS, INSTITUTIONS, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, REVENUES, POPULATION, CASTES, RELIGION, HISTORY, &c.

OF THEIR

VARIOUS INHABITANTS.

BY WALTER HAMILTON.

SECOND EDITION.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

B.R. Publishing Corp. Delhi

Cataloging in Publication Data—DK

Hamilton, Walter.

East-India gazetteer.

2 v.

Reprint.

1. India, Eastern—Gazetteers. 2. India—Gazetteers. 3. India, Eastern—History. 4. India—History. 5. India—Social life and customs. I. Title.

***First Published* 1828.**
***First Reprint* 1984**

Published in India by
B. R. PUBLISHING CORPORATION
461, VIVEKANAND NAGAR,
DELHI - 110052 (INDIA)

Distributed by
D.K. PUBLISHERS' DISTRIBUTORS
1, ANSARI ROAD, DARYA GANJ,
NEW DELHI-110002. (INDIA)
PHONE : 278368

Printed at
RICHA OFFSET
DELHI-110052 (INDIA)

THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER,

&c. &c.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

Ichawur.—A town in the province of Malwa, transferred in 1818, along with the pergunnah, from the Vinchoor Cur to the Nabob of Bopaul; lat. 23° 2′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E., thirty-two miles S.W. from Bopaul. This place stands on the high road from Hindia to Sehore, and in 1820 contained about 1,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Idaan.—See Borneo.

Ikery (*Ikeri*).—The ruins of a town, formerly of great note, in the province of Mysore, eighteen miles north from Bednore; lat. 14° 7′ N., lon. 75° 7′ E. Near to these tumuli, on the south bank of the Varadi, which is here a small stream, stands a well-built town named Sagar, which carries on a considerable trade.

During the time that Ikery was the residence of the princes descended from Sada-siva, it was a very large place, and it is said by the natives, with their usual exaggeration, to have contained 100,000 houses. Like Soonda, the ruins of its wall are of great extent, and appear to have formed three concentric enclosures, rather than fortifications. No town at present exists on this spot, but the devastation was not occasioned by any political calamity, the court having removed from hence to Bednore. Ikery, however, continued the nominal capital; the rajas were designated by its name, and the coins were supposed to be struck there, although, in point of fact, the mint was removed. The pagodas struck since the conquest of Mysore and Bednore are still denominated Ikery pagodas.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Inderghur (*Indra ghera*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-eight miles S. by W. from Rantampoor; lat. 25° 39′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E.

Indergurh.—A fortified town belonging to Sindia in the province of Malwa, twenty-five miles W. by N. from Sumpter.

Indergurh.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles N. by E. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 54′ N., lon. 78° 31′ E.

Inderhal.—A town in the province of Beeder, thirty-six miles N.W. from the city of Beeder; lat. 18° 10′ N., lon. 77° 11′ E.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

This expression is generally used to designate the countries east of Bengal, but it is not strictly correct, a considerable portion of that province extending to the east of the Ganges. It is also sometimes termed a peninsula, which its form in no manner justifies. In the modern acceptation of the phrase, which was

first applied by the Greeks, it may be considered as comprehended between lat. 7° and 26° N. and lon. 93° and 109° E. On the north it is bounded by Assam, Tibet, and China; on the north-east by China; and on the north-west by Bengal and Assam; all the rest of its extent is washed by the ocean. The principal rivers are the Irawady, Cambodia River, the Donnai or Tunquin River, the Menam or Siam River, and the Saluen or Martaban River.

In 1827 the whole of this region was either nominally or really subordinate to three great powers, *viz.* Cochin China, or Anam, which held the eastern portion; Siam, which held the southern and central portion; and Ava, which held the western portion. Besides mountaineers and other uncivilized tribes, it may be said to have contained eight distinct nations, *viz.*

1. Arracan, or the Mugh country.
2. Ava, or Burma Proper (the Mranmas).
3. Pegu, or Mon, called also Talliens.
4. Siam, or Thay.
5. Laos, or the Shan country.
6. Cambodia, or the Khomen.
7. Anam, or Tunquin and Cochin China.
8. Malacca, or the Malay peninsula.

A wide mountainous tract inhabited by savage tribes extends from Cape Negrais to the Brahmaputra. With its southern end it separates Pegu from Arracan; towards its middle and north it divides Ava and its dependencies from Bengal. Near to its southern end it is narrow, and peopled by petty tribes, too poor to have been thought worth converting either by the followers of Gautama (the Buddhists), or by those of Vyasa (the Brahmins). These tribes are so numerous, and their territories so intermixed, that it is impossible to discriminate the one from the other; the names, however, of the principal races are the following, *viz.* Carians, Kayns, Kookies, Garrows, Nagas, Cacharies, and Cosseahs, all which aboriginal tribes have strongly marked Chinese countenances. These tribes are more addicted to agriculture than the civilized races of the maritime coasts, who chiefly gain a subsistence by manufactures, fishing, and commerce, exchanging their commodities with the rude tribes for grain. These last are diligent cultivators, clearing the forests in succession, after long fallows, and thus procuring very plentiful crops from the lands enriched by rotten foliage and rest. These tribes have not any towns, but live under their own native chiefs, protected in a considerable degree from the oppressions of the petty despots who usually tyrannize over the more civilized races in their vicinity.

Towards the middle and north this elevated tract expands, and contains more extensive vallies, and their inhabitants are consequently of greater value and importance. Accordingly the Rajas of Tipera, Munipoor, Gentiah, and Cachar, all considerable chiefs, have been induced to restrain their appetites, and receive instruction from the Brahmins, as explained by Madhava Acharjya; while other tribes, subject to Ava, have been converted to the doctrines of Buddha. The Plau burn their dead since their conversion to Buddhism.

The inhabitants of this extensive region may be distinguished into three divisions: those who possess the eastern part, those who possess the western, and those who hold the southern extremity. The people who inhabit the eastern quarter shew a greater affinity to the Chinese their neighbours; and in like manner those on the western approximate to the Hindoos. The southern extremity is possessed principally by the Malays. The natives comprehended in this space may be considered a kind of body politic, wholly distinct from that of Hindostan, and connected together by general similarity of manners, religion, and political maxims; their general dispositions being strikingly contrasted with those of India west of the Ganges. The Burmese, Peguers, Siamese, Shans, and Cambodians, profess the Buddhist doctrines, which have not made an equal

progress in Tunquin or Cochin China. In point of civilization all these nations are inferior to the Chinese, Hindoos, Persians, Arabians, and Tartars, but superior to any race that inhabit the East-Indian Archipelago. Filth, cruelty, indifference to corporeal punishment, degradation and ill-usage of their females, are unequivocal proofs of a low stage of barbarism. None of the Indo-Chinese nations use milk as a common article of diet, which is another marked distinction between them and the Hindoos.

Although the influence of Buddha is at present but trifling in Hindostan, his native country, his doctrine extends over China, it's tributary nations, and many Tartar hordes, to Russia. India east of the Ganges, Great and Little Tibet, Bootan, Ceylon, and many of the islands in the Eastern seas, whose inhabitants have not yet become Mahomedans, adhere to the religion of Buddha, under various modifications.

The vernacular Indo-Chinese languages on the continent seem all to be in their original structure either purely monosyllabic, like the spoken languages of China, or incline greatly to this class, and are prodigiously varied in accentuation. The Pali language does not exist as a spoken tongue, but among the Indo-Chinese nations occupies the same place which the Sanscrit does among the Hindoos, or Arabic among the followers of Mahomed. Throughout the greater part of the maritime countries that lie betwixt India and China, it is the language of religion, law, literature, and science, and has had an extensive influence in modifying the vernacular languages of these regions. The name of this language, although pronounced Bali, is more generally written Pali. Among the Indo-Chinese nations it is frequently denominated Lunka Basa, and Magata, or Mungata.

The Pali alphabet seems in its origin to be a derivation from the Devanagari, although it has not only acquired a considerable difference of form, but also been modified to a certain degree in the power of the letters by the monosyllabic pronunciation of the Indo-Chinese nations. The form of the Pali character varies essentially among the different nations by whom it is used; the Pali language is an ancient dialect of the Sanscrit, which sometimes approaches very near to the original. The Malaya language, and the more original languages of the Eastern Isles, seem in their original formation to have been polysyllabic. The Indo-Chinese languages may be considered in the following order, viz.

Polysyllabic Languages.

1. Malaya.
2. Jaura (Java).
3. Buggess (in Celebes).
4. Bima (in Sumbhawa).
5. Battak (in Sumatra).
6. Gala, or Tagala (in the Philippines).

Monosyllabic Languages.

7. Rukheng (Arracan).
8. Barma, or Mranma (Ava).
9. Mon (Pegu).
10. Thay (Siam).
11. Khomen (Cambodia).
12. Law (Laos, or the Shans).
13. Anam (Cochin China and Tunquin).

Learned Language.

14. The Pali, or Bali.

With respect to the history of these nations, we have scarcely any thing that deserves the name. Civilization was probably first introduced by the race which occupied China, about the third century before our Saviour; but, except in Tunquin and Cochin, this nation appears to have preserved its footing for too short a period to fix radically those wise institutions and patriarchal form of government which unite the Chinese under a permanent authority, and in some measure supply the want of a hereditary nobility. China has certainly sustained various changes of dynasty; notwithstanding which, the stability resulting from a regular education, and from a gradual promotion through established degrees of power, brings back order and subordination after the first settlement

of the new sovereigns. In India beyond the Ganges, the caprice of the mob or of tyrants being without adequate checks, have long been accustomed to raise from the dust the meanest, most audacious, and unprincipled adventurers.

Before the arrival of the Chinese the country seems to have been occupied by numerous rude tribes, who, like the invaders, were of the great Tartar race, and these mingling with the conquerors, appear to have produced the offspring which now compose the civilized portion of the nations termed by Europeans Anamitic, Siamese, Burmese, Peguers, and Malays. These now occupy the principal towns and valleys; but a very large proportion of the country is still held by tribes in a primeval state of rudeness, unacquainted with literature, divinity, law, medicine, and in a great degree with arms and manufactures, yet very industrious cultivators of the soil, and of inoffensive manners.

At a later period than the Chinese invasion, along with the religious doctrines of the Buddhists, most of the tribes received the literature of the Hindoos, as it existed then under the kings of Magadha or Bahar. The natives of ultra Gangetic India, although they adopted much of the ancient language, doctrines, and customs of the Hindoos, yet being originally of a different extraction, they cling to many obsolete practices, and are consequently held in utter abhorrence by the adherents of the Brahmins. Hindoo science, thus propagated, had the effect of banishing that of the Chinese, while at the same time it introduced a more perfect form of writing; but notwithstanding this advantage, the western states are evidently less civilised than Tunquin and Cochin China, both of which received the Buddhist doctrines through Tibet and China, and still retain the literature and education of the last-mentioned state.

At the era when the European nations discovered the navigation to India by the *Cape of Good Hope*, India beyond the Ganges seems then, as now, to have been called Chin by the natives of Hindostan, while the Chinese empire was called Maha Chin, or Great China. For a description of the modern subdivisions, see the different kingdoms and provinces respectively.—(*F. Buchanan, Leyden, Symes, Edinburgh Review, Lieut. Low, &c.*)

INDIA SOUTH OF THE KRISHNA RIVER.

This portion of Hindostan has the figure of a triangle, of which the course of the river Krishna forms the base, and the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel the sides. Its extent from the Krishna to Cape Comorin, placed at the apex of the triangle, is about 600 miles English; and its breadth in the widest part 550, from whence it tapers to a point at Cape Comorin. The grand geographical feature of this region is a central table-land, elevated from 3,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, separated by wild, abrupt, and mountainous declivities from the low countries to the east and west, which form a belt of unequal breadth between the hills and the sea. The central eminence is usually termed Balaghaut (above the ghauts); and the lower belt, more especially the eastern, Payeenghaut (below the ghauts).

The most remarkable rainy season in this part of India is that called the south-west monsoon, which extends from Africa to the Malay peninsula, deluging all the intermediate regions within certain degrees of latitude for four months of the year. In the south of India this monsoon commences about the end of May or the beginning of June, but it gets later as we proceed northward. Its approach is announced in the south by vast masses of cloud that rise from the Indian ocean and advance towards the north-east, gathering and thickening as they approach the land. After some threatening days the sky assumes a troubled appearance in the evening, the monsoon generally set-

ting in during the night, attended with a tremendous thunder storm and violent blasts of wind, and succeeded by a flood of rain. For some hours lightning is seen without intermission, sometimes for an instant leaving the horizon in darkness, and afterwards suddenly re-appearing in vivid and successive flashes, while the thunder rolls incessantly. When at length this uproar ceases, the rain is heard pouring, and the torrents rushing down the rising streams.

This scene continues for a few days, after which the sky clears and discovers the face of nature changed as if by enchantment. In place of parched fields, brooks dried up, vegetation withered, a fiery and scorching wind, a torrid sky obscured with dust, through which the sun shines dull and discoloured, the whole earth appears covered with a sudden and luxuriant verdure; the rivers are full and tranquil, the air pure and delicious, and the sky variegated with different clouds; while the animal creation, by the alacrity of their motions, shew themselves sensible of the change. From this period the rain falls at intervals for about a month, after which its violence increases, and in July the rains attain their maximum. During August, although still heavy, they rather diminish; in September they abate considerably, and towards the conclusion of the month depart as they came, amidst thunder and tempests. Such is the monsoon in the greater part of India, diversified according to latitude and the distance from the sea.

The south-west monsoon commences on the Malabar coast in May, and is there very furious; it is later and more moderate in Mysore; while the coast of Coromandel, covered by the western Ghauts, is wholly exempt from it. Further north the monsoon begins early in June, and loses its violence, except in the vicinity of high mountains, where the fall of rain is considerable. About Delhi it does not begin until the end of June, and the quantity of moisture is greatly inferior to what is discharged at Calcutta and Bombay. In the north of the Punjab, near the hills, it exceeds that of Delhi; but towards the junction of the five rivers with the Indus, which is remote both from the sea and the hills, very little rain falls. The countries under the Cashmere hills, and those of Hindoo Cosh, have all their share of the rains, but they decrease to the westward. It is generally supposed that the monsoon does not extend beyond the tropic: but this is not the fact, as it prevails at Tatta, in lat 24° 44′ N., yet does not at Corachie (lat. 24° 51′ N., lon. 67° 16′ E.), which is beyond the limit to the west.

In this geographical division of Hindostan the mass of the population is Hindoo, the Mahomedans being few comparatively; the primitive Hindoo manners and customs have been consequently preserved in a state of great purity, more especially in Tinnevelly and the districts adjacent. In this quarter the lapse of twenty centuries has apparently made no change in the habits and peculiarities of the Hindoo, or in his civil condition or religion. His diet is frugal and simple; his hut is composed of mud, the leaves of the cocoa-nut tree, and a few bamboos; and a small strip of cloth is his garment. The country is subdivided into villages, comprehending some thousand acres of arable and waste land, the boundaries of which, amidst political revolutions and convulsions, have never been altered. The constitution of the villages resembles a little republic, or rather corporation, having its hereditary officers and artificers. Villages inhabited solely by Brahmins are of frequent occurrence, and are generally described under the name of agra grama, or superior villages. Throughout the whole region, however, many foreign families are to be found, whose ancestors have migrated hither from their native land in times of famine or distress, and in their adopted country have preserved, from generation to generation, their own language and peculiarities. Many instances could be pointed out of such

foreign families settled here four or five hundred years, without approximating in the least to the manners, fashions, or even the language of the natives where they have been so long domesticated. These still preserve the remembrance of their origin, and adhere to the ceremonies and usages of the land of their ancestors, without in the least adopting those of the country where accident has compelled them to reside.

Certain tribes, from their inferiority of rank, and the utter contempt in which they are held, appear to be a separate race, cut off from the great Hindoo nation. Of this description are the Parias, although they are so numerous that they have been computed at one-fifth of the whole population of India south of the Krishna. These Parias are subdivided into many classes and gradations, each claiming superiority over the other; but the whole subjected to the higher castes, and in general not allowed to cultivate land on their own account, being in a manner slaves to the other tribes. This extreme detestation of the Parias varies in intensity in different regions, and prevails with most virulence in the southern countries. In some parts of Mysore the higher castes tolerate the approach of the Parias, and permit them to enter that part of the house that shelters the cows; and instances are even recorded where they have permitted them to advance the head and one foot within the body of the dwelling-house. The distinction towards the north becomes less marked. Europeans are under the necessity of employing Parias for servants, because a great part of their work could not be done by any of the purer castes. No individual of a respectable Sudra tribe would brush the shoes or draw off the boots of his master, far less cook for a monster who devoured the sacred cow and ox. They are consequently compelled to have recourse to the assistance of the Parias, and thereby participate in the loathing of the higher classes of Hindoos.

Although the Brahminical religion was probably the most general in the south of India, other systems had at certain periods an extensive sway. First, the Jains, who reject the authority of the Vedas and Puranas, of which profession the sovereigns of Karnata appear to have been until the twelfth century of the Christian era. Second, the Bhauddha or Buddhists, who had temples. Third, the Mahomedan religion, which was introduced through the medium of the commercial intercourse between Arabia and Malabar Fourth, a numerous colony of Jews settled at Cochin, and in other parts of Malabar. Fifth, a knowledge of the true religion had made some progress at an early period, but the Nestorian doctrines were those professed. The languages of this region derive at least one-half of the words they contain immediately from the Sanscrit; but they are supposed to derive a great part, if not the whole, of the remainder, from another source, by some supposed to be the dialect frequently termed high Tamul.

The earliest Mahomedan army that crossed the Krishna was led in A.D. 1310 by Kafoor, against Dhoor Summooder, the capital city of Belal Deo, the sovereign of Karnata; but they never made any permanent conquests until the beginning of the eighteenth century. For many years prior to the British ascendancy, the governments in this quarter were little more than an assemblage of Poligarships under a superior chief, who, although he had a general control over the whole, exercised very little interference with the domestic management of their respective districts. In fact Hyder was the only sovereign here who ever subdued all his petty feudatories, or was really, according to European ideas, master of his country. Whatever may have been the nature of the ancient governments, this fertile region has evidently undergone a gradual decay since the first intrusion of the Mahomedans, and its decline appears to have been accelerated after the commencement of British influence, so long as it was exercised through the medium of na-

tive chiefs, whose oppressive mode of levying the revenue contributed more to ruin the country than all the wars and tumults that had occurred. Many provinces have continued in high culture, although exposed to constant wars, while others have become deserts in the midst of peace. The open violence of armies has probably done less injury than the fines, fees, exactions, and contributions, which have been imposed by the tyranny, or permitted by the weakness of the state. The buildings, tanks, channels, and even ridges that separated former fields, the ruined villages, general tradition, books, accounts, sunnuds, and instructions, all combine to give a high idea of the former opulence and cultivation of this division of Hindostan. It must be admitted, however, that many of these appearances may have originated from the circumstance of each portion of the country having become in its turn the seat of a petty and transitory state, which flourished for a time, afterwards decayed, became gradually deserted by its inhabitants migrating to some more prosperous spot, and at last relapsed to a state of jungle, containing the remains of buildings, tanks, fields, and houses, the vestiges of its former population. The ancient great Hindoo princes in this quarter did not, in fact, want a large revenue for they had no expensive establishments to keep up, and the simplicity of their manners required but little. Religious ceremonies were probably the chief expense of the state, the soldiers being supported by grants of land.

In the Hindoo geographical systems, India south of the Krishna is partitioned into five divisions; in modern times the following may be considered as the principal territorial subdivisions, viz.

1. The southern portion of the Bejapoor province.

2. The Balaghaut ceded territories, comprehending the districts of Cuddapah and Bellary.

3. The Carnatic below the ghauts, containing the districts of Nellore and Ongole, North Arcot, South Arcot, Chinglepût, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Dindigul, and Tinnevelly.

4. The province of Mysore.

5. The Canara and Malabar districts.

6. The principalities of Cochin and Travancore.

The only place of great magnitude is the modern city of Madras.—(*Thackeray, Elphinstone, Dubois, Wilks, Lushington, Edinburgh Review, Rennell, 5th Report, &c.*)

INDORE (*Indura, a rat*).—A city in the province of Malwa, the capital of the Holcar family; lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E., 1,998 feet above the level of the sea. Old Indore having been destroyed by fire during the war between Sindia and Holcar in 1801, the present city is almost entirely modern, and since 1818 has been extending with such a rapidity that the population, which at the time of its capture by Sir Thomas Hislop's army, was only 10,000, two years afterwards was roughly computed at 60,000 persons. Not only had those families which during the prior distractions, had fled to Oojein, returned, but the inhabitants of Oojein and its vicinity were migrating in large numbers to Indore. The city in consequence exhibited a spectacle not uncommon in England, but rarely to be seen in India, of whole streets of new dwelling-houses, built or building in every direction, while the revenue in that short space of time had increased fourfold under the judicious management of the late Tantia Jogh, and the implicit confidence reposed in the British authorities.

Some of the new streets of Indore are tolerably spacious, paved with granite slabs, and the houses of two stories, framed of wood and filled with brick masonry, as at Oojein. On the whole, however, it is a mean-built irregular city, and with the exception of some chetrees in the suburbs, particularly that o. Mulhar Row Holcar, the founder o.

the family, and of Alia Bhye, it does not contain a single structure worth looking at. The position of Indore, in a well-wooded country and undulating plain, with fine hills at a distance, is exceeding pleasant, and the elevation renders its climate one of the most temperate in Malwa. The raja's old palace was taken down in 1819, and a new one commenced, of which about one-fourth part was completed in 1820. It is a massy quadrangular building of granite, with decorations of carved wood, but placed in a very confined situation. The British residency is about a mile to the south of the town, and the tombs of the Holcar, situated on the banks of the Kutkee stream, have a very imposing effect. In former times Indore was to Oojein what Mirzapoor is to Benares, the centre of the wholesale trade of the province, the other being then the depôt of wealth, which administered to, and was created by commerce; but they have since in many respects changed conditions since Sindia made Gualior his capital.

Mulhar Row Holcar, of the Dhoongur or shepherd tribe, the founder of the dynasty, was born about A.D. 1693, and rose to eminence under the first Peshwa, when he received in marriage the daughter of Narrain Row Bund, the maternal uncle of Sahoo Raja. He obtained high commands under Bajerow and his successors, and escaped the massacre at the battle of Paniput. He died about 1769, and was succeeded by an insane grandson named Mallee Row, who died, or was assassinated, in less than a year. His mother, Alia Bhye, then assumed the government, and selected Tuckojee Holcar for the commander of her army, associate in the state, and ultimate successor. Her success in the internal administration of her domains was extraordinary, and her memory is still revered for the justice and wisdom of her administration. She died in 1795, aged sixty, and Tuckojee Holcar in 1797. He left four sons; two legitimate, Casi Row, and Mulhar Row; and two illegitimate, Witul Row, and Jeswunt Row Holcar. Dissensions arising among them, most of their possessions were seized on by Dowlet Row Sindia, after putting to death Mulhar Row; the remainder were usurped by Jeswunt Row, to the prejudice of the legal heir, Casi Row Holcar.

A long contest for superiority ensued between Dowlet Row Sindia and Jeswunt Row Holcar. In 1801 the army of the latter was totally defeated by that of Dowlet Row, with the loss of all his artillery, and the dispersion of his regular battalions, after which Indore was captured, and exposed to all the horrors of indiscriminate plunder during two successive days, to gratify, at once the vengeance of Sindia and the rapacity of his troops. Holcar, however, soon collected another army, which was then no difficult matter in Hindostan, and in 1802 determined to make Poona the theatre of his operations, towards which he marched with an army, mostly composed of adventurers, and estimated at 40,000 cavalry and 30,000 infantry. On receiving intelligence of his movement, Sindia detached an army under the command of Sedasheo Bhow, to Poona, which in the month of September effected a junction with the troops of the Peshwa. A general action took place on the 25th October 1802, when the Bhow was completely defeated, and Jeswunt Row entered the capital. During these operations, the latter had so completely desolated his adversary's territories in the south, that it would have been impossible for him to have subsisted his own army and the myriads attached to it, without invading the dominions of the Nizam. General Wellesley declared, that he had not left a stick standing within 150 miles of Poona; the forage and grain were consumed, the houses pulled down for fuel, and the inhabitants with their cattle compelled to fly from the destruction that threatened them. During the march of the British army from Meritch, except in one village,

not a human creature was seen, and this devastation must soon have extended to the British territories, if these hordes of ravagers had not been driven to the north of the Nerbudda.

The fortune of this adventurer was now at its greatest elevation; but his situation was entirely precarious, owing to the instability of his resources, which one day made him predominant in the Maharatta empire, and the next reduced him to the condition of a fugitive without a home or a capital. Being compelled by the advance of General Wellesley to make a precipitate retreat from Poona, his enormous army soon melted away as the scene of their predatory exploits became limited, and being destitute of any permanent revenue, he was compelled to supply the exigencies of the remainder by indiscriminate plunder. At this time his possessions in the Deccan consisted principally of the Amber district, situated between Jalnapoor, Aurungabad, and the Godavery; half the district of Seingaum south of the Godavery (the other half appertaining to Sindia); the fort of Chandore, and a few tracts in Candeish. The total revenues of the province were computed at eighty lacks of rupees; but a small portion of this amount ever reached the sovereign's treasury, there being no established laws in his dominions, where every head of a village was a petty chief, who seized and kept what he could. With respect to Jeswunt himself, it was his practice to disclaim all territorial interests whatever, and to boast that he never possessed more country than lay within the shadow of his horse.

Jeswunt Row remained neuter in 1803, during the war carried on between the combined forces of Sindia and the Nagpore raja against the British government; but after its conclusion resumed his predatory habits with increased audacity. After much ineffectual negociation, a war ensued, which Holcar commenced most inauspiciously, by the murder of the British officers then in his service, Captains Vickars, Tod, and Ryan. In the subsequent battles his troops were routed and dispersed wherever they could be come up with: but his perseverance and activity, added to the unexpected secession of the Bhurtpoor raja, greatly procrastinated the conclusion, and increased the expense of the war. Chandore, his capital in Candeish, was captured by the Bombay army in 1804, and the last campaign of this usurper was only a flight before the British army, which drove him as far as the banks of the Hyphasis in the Punjab, where in 1805, being reduced to extreme distress, he sent agents to Lord Lake to solicit a peace. This was granted him, and on such advantageous terms, that although one of the bitterest enemies to the British cause and nation, his loss was trifling compared with what others sustained, who had less seriously offended.

Having thus advantageously extricated himself from a most critical situation, he appears to have relaxed very much from his military habits, and ere long exhibited symptoms of occasional mental derangement. From this state he was roused in 1808 by a rebellion against him, under pretence of supporting the pretensions of Casi Row, which gained such strength that the insurgents obtained possession of all Holcar's territories in Candeish, including the important fortress of Chandore. They subsequently advanced to the frontiers of the Nizam's dominions, with the view of attacking the district of Amber, a small section of country belonging to Holcar, but entirely surrounded by the Nizam's provinces. The apprehensions of the efforts of this party, it is supposed, influenced Jeswunt Row to compass the death of Casi Row, and thereby remove the ostensible standard of opposition to his authority. This atrocity, however, only added to the vigour of the insurrection, which was not so much connected with the assassinated prince, as originating in the personal wrongs of the chiefs who conducted it. Having plundered and

desolated a large portion of Holcar's possessions, and even of Sindia's between the Tuptee and Nerbudda, they proceeded to commit depredations on the territories of the Peshwa and Nizam, alleging necessity as their excuse. This convenient palliative not being considered satisfactory, a portion of the Poona and Hyderabad subsidiary forces were put in motion under Colonels Doveton and Wallace, which having surprised several of their wandering bands, expelled the whole with great loss from the territories of the allies.

The habitual insanity of Jeswunt Row continuing to gain ground, his ministers, in 1809, intimated to the British government a request, that their prince might be allowed to visit the idol at Jejoory, in the Peshwa's country, in hopes that he might thereby be cured of the intellectual malady under which he laboured; but a compliance with this proposal was for obvious reasons declined, and his bodily infirmities being aggravated by those of his mind, he at length closed his eventful, and not very creditable life, on the 27th October 1811. Throughout his whole life, the constitution of his government rested on the most vicious of all foundations, the power of inflicting more injury on his peaceably-disposed neighbours than, from the nature of his own dominions, they were liable to receive, a predicament which only ceased with the battle of Maheidpoor.

Jeswunt's son and successor, Mulhar Row Holcar, was quietly seated on the throne, but being a minor, the administration of affairs was continued under the management of Toolsee Bhye his mother, and Balaram Seth, the same as during the incapacity of his father. The influence, however, of Meer Khan, whenever he chose to exert it, was dominant, a large proportion of the late Holcar's troops having attached themselves to him; but the necessity of providing for their pay and subsistence rendered it impossible for him to continue long stationary, and, of course, occasioned his frequent absence from head-quarters. During one of these secessions, Toolsee Bhye, the queen regent, with her son, were driven by the outrageous conduct of the troops to seek shelter with the Raja of Kotah; but her party having subsequently gained the ascendant, she returned, and is reported to have revenged her injuries with great cruelty. On the accession of Mulhar Row, his ministers urgently solicited the sanction of the British government to the grant of a khilaut, or dress of investiture, both from the Peshwa and from the king of Delhi; but they were informed that the British government did not arrogate to itself the privilege of confirmation; which it likewise denied both to the Peshwa and the Delhi sovereign. They were told that it recognized the Holcar state as an independent power, and consequently did not admit the necessity of any form of public acknowledgment of Mulhar Row's title to the throne, which would indicate a subserviency on his part that did not in the slightest degree exist.

After the intellectual derangement of Jeswunt Row Holcar, and more especially subsequently to his death, the power he had raised by his crimes, and maintained by his abilities, was fast crumbling to pieces, and its total destruction, by the increasing strength of the predatory associations, impending. Although some of the chief Pindaries held large jaghires from Holcar's government, they acted so independently that they were considered as having withdrawn themselves, and the queen regent, Toolsee Bhye, expressed great pleasure at the prospect of their chastisement. This lady, finding herself unable to control the insolence of the sirdars, had sent an envoy privately to solicit her son and state might be taken under the British protection: which overture was kindly received, and no burthensome condition imposed, except reciprocal support to put down all predatory banditti. While these arrangements were in progress, all of a sudden the vakeel was recalled; the dif-

ferent chiefs, with their respective troops, were hastily summoned; and the determination of marching to the assistance of the Peshwa proclaimed. Negociations with Ghuffoor Khan and the other leaders of Holcar's army were then attempted; but these were mistaken for symptoms of weakness, and Toolsee Bhye, the queen regent, who wished to withdraw from the precipice, was carried down to the banks of the Sipra, and there publicly executed, the day before the battle of Maheidpoor.

On the 17th December the hostile spirit of these ferocious Patan chiefs openly assumed the predominance; attacks were made on the British foraging parties, and all attempts at an amicable adjustment failing, Sir Thomas Hislop's army attacked that of (nominally) Holcar at Maheidpoor, and after suffering much slaughter from the latter's artillery, succeeded in capturing the guns; after which the infantry gave way, and retreated, pursued by Sir John Malcolm with the regular cavalry and Mysore horse. A treaty with Mulhar Row was soon afterwards (on the 6th January 1818) concluded at Mundessor by Sir J Malcolm, and a federal alliance entered into. The exertions made by the Indore state, during the short war of 1817, showed the dangerous impolicy of leaving it in a condition to be ever again troublesome: it was therefore dismembered of two-thirds of its territory, and the greater portion of the lands thus abstracted transferred to the rajas of Kotah, Boondee, and other Rajpoot chiefs, whom it was desirable to strengthen; while a portion was also retained to defray the expense of the troops required for the protection of that quarter.

By the treaty of Mundessor, Holcar renounced his claim to all territories within, and north of the Boondee hills, and within and without the range of the Satpoora range of hills, including the fortress of Sindwa, with a glacis of two thousand yards, which he ceded to the British government, with some of his possessions in Candeish, and such other tracts as were intermixed with the dominions of the Nizam and Peshwa. He also ceded to the British government all claims of tribute from any of the Rajpoot princes, such as the rajas of Odeypoor, Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Kotah, Boondee, and Karouly. In consideration of these cessions, the British government bound itself to maintain a stationary force to preserve the internal tranquillity of Holcar's territories, and defend them from foreign aggressors: the detachment thus employed to receive every support from Holcar's government, which, when called on, was bound to supply a contingent of 3,000 auxiliary horse, and to refer all foreign disputes to the arbitration of the British government. It was agreed that Ameer Khan should retain all his territories, and that Ghuffoor Khan should receive a hereditary jaghire, it not being then known that he was suspected of being the principal instigator of the murder of Toolsee Bhye.

Immediately on the conclusion of the above treaty, Mulhar Row Holcar, a boy of about twelve years of age, accompanied by his principal chiefs, came into the British camp, when Tantia Jogh, as prime minister, was invested with the management of affairs. At present the reserved territories of Holcar consist of the following portions, viz.

	Sq. miles.
Extending along the southern bank of the Nerbudda about	1,800
Along the north bank of ditto	4,800
In different detached portions, ditto..	4,900
	11,500

The young prince abandoned the former custom of always residing in camp, and fixed his residence at Indore, which, under the able management of Tantia Jogh (who died in 1826), rapidly increased in extent, wealth, and population. In 1824 the revenue exceeded twenty five lacks of rupees per annum, and if tranquillity

continued, was likely in ten years to approach forty lacks. Rowjee Trimbuck, the present minister, was during Tantia Jogh's life his principal manager, and the medium of intercourse with the British resident. Although by the course of events the state has fallen in comparative power and dignity (and what native state has not?) the condition of the individual on the throne has certainly been improved. His turbulent and mutinous army has either been killed, dispersed, or paid off; and the territories left, although circumscribed, are fertile, and have long been the only ones from which any revenue was realized without the employment of an army.

Travelling distance from Bombay 456 miles; from Nagpoor 371; and from Calcutta 1,030 miles.—(*Fullarton, Treaties, the Marquis of Wellesley, Public MS. Documents, the Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Sir J. Malcolm, Tod, Collins, the Duke of Wellington, &c.*)

INDRAGIRI (*the mountain of Indra*).—A small Malay state on the north coast of Sumatra, bordering on Siak, which exports considerable quantities of rice to Singapoor. The river is large, but incommoded by a dangerous bore. The inhabitants are genuine Malays; but on the coast there are some piratical establishments belonging to the Llanos of Magindanao, especially at Retteh, where they have been settled above thirty years. Its name is pure Sanscrit, and is one of the few Hindoo words to be found on the north coast of Sumatra, where their absence or frequency may be considered as a good index of the degree of civilization attained by the inhabitants. This remark may also be applied to the whole Eastern Archipelago.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

INDRAPOOR (*Indra pura, the city of Indra*).—A town, district, and river on the south-west coast of the island of Sumatra, situated principally between the second and third degrees of south latitude. The town stands about 100 miles N.W from Bencoolen. The river Indrapoor, which descends from the mountains of Korinchi, is considered one of the largest in the southern portion of the west coast of Sumatra, and is capable of admitting sloops. This country formerly yielded a large quantity of pepper, and some gold was brought from the interior, which now finds another channel. An English factory was established here in 1684, but never became of any importance.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

INDREE.—A walled town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles N. by E. from Kurnal; lat. 29° 53′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E.

THE INDUS RIVER.

(*Sindhu.*)

The source of the Indus still remains unexplored; but of late years much information has been collected by travellers and others, regarding its course and origin. At present probable conjecture fixes its commencement on the northern declivity of the Cailas branch of the Himalaya mountains; about lat. 31° 20′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E., not far from the Chinese town of Gortope, or Goroo, and within a few miles of Lake Rawans Hrad and the sources of the Sutuleje. The stream of the Indus has been traced with tolerable certainty only to the neighbourhood of Draus, a town in Little Tibet (lat. 35° 20′ N., lon. 76° E., in the old maps); where, according to the testimony of the natives, two branches join, eight days' march for a caravan, N.N.E. from the town of Cashmere The left of these branches they describe as being seventy yards broad a little above the junction, and excessively rapid, flowing from the north-east, with a wooden bridge across it. Other accounts assert that the confluence takes place two marches above Draus; and that at or below Draus it is separated into two streams, the lesser named the Little Sinde, running south to Cashmere, while the course of the greater remained unknown,

but was distinguished by the name of the Great Sinde. The main stream, which passes Draus, coming from the N.E., is supposed to flow near to Lahdack, the capital of Little Tibet, to which point from Gortope its current is conjectured to flow for near 400 miles from S.S.E.; but its course above Draus remains wholly conjectural, its channel higher up, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country, never having been explored. Much was expected from the researches of the late Mr. Moorcroft, who in 1820 spent several months in Lahdack and its neighbourhood; but although seven years have elapsed since that period, the contents of his papers have never been communicated to the public.

From Draus the Indus pursues its solitary course for above two hundred miles through a rude and mountainous country to Mullai, where, after it has penetrated through the great Hindoo Cosh chain, it receives from the north-west the Abbasseen, and subsequently proceeds for fifty miles through the lower hills of the Hindoo Cosh to Toruaila (forty miles above Attock), where it enters the valley of Chuch, spreading abroad and forming many islands. About forty miles lower down it receives the Cabul river, and soon after rushes through a narrow opening in the midst of the branches of the Soliman range of mountains. Even when the water is at the lowest, the junction of these rivers and their course through the rocks, before they penetrate the mountains, cause waves and eddies, and occasion a sound like that of the sea; but when their volume is swelled by the rain and melting of the snow, a tremendous whirlpool is created, the roaring of which may be heard at a great distance. It frequently swallows up boats, or dashes them to pieces on the rocks The two black rocks in this part of the river, named Jellalia and Kemalia, are pointed out by the inhabitants as the transformed bodies of the two sons of Peeree Taruck (the apostle of darkness), the founder of the Roushenia sect, who were thrown into the river by Akhoond, the dervise and theological opponent of their father. In 1809 the Indus was forded above its confluence with the Cabul river by Sultan Shah Shuja; but this was considered as an extraordinary event, there being no other ford of the Indus known, from the spot where it issues from the mountains to its junction with the ocean.

The Indus, which above expands so widely into the plain, at Attock is contracted to 260 yards. but deep and rapid. When its floods are at the highest, it rises to the top of a bastion, from thirty-five to forty feet high, yet does not even then spread out more than fifty yards additional. Lower down, where it enters the hills, its breadth becomes still more contracted; and at Neelaub, a town fifteen miles below Attock, is said to be only a stone's throw across, but with a current of great depth and increased velocity. From Neelaub it winds among the hills to Calabaugh, where it passes through the salt range in a deep, clear, and tranquil stream; and from thence it pursues a southerly course to the ocean, without being again shut in or interrupted by hills. On the contrary, after passing Calabaugh, it expands over the plain into various channels, which meet and separate again, but are rarely united into one body.

Below Attock, the Indus receives the Toe and other brooks; but no stream of any magnitude until it is joined by the Koorum river, at Kaggawala, where its bed is broad, but very shallow. The only river that flows into the Indus from the west, south of this point, is the Arul; but it supplies little water, as its stream is mostly abstracted for the purposes of irrigation in the northern parts of the Damaun district, and never reaches the Indus, unless when swelled by the monsoon rains. At Kaheree Ghaut, in lat. 31° 28′ N., the breadth of the Indus at two points was found to be 1,010 and 905 yards, on the 6th of January 1809, a period of the year when the stream is at the

lowest. The deep part of the channel was not above 100 yards across, and only twelve feet to the bottom, an elephant not having above 100 yards to swim; but at this part of its course the main channel is considerably reduced by the previous separation of several large arms, which run nearly parallel to the main trunk of the river. One of these from its right bank is fordable only in a few places, and 202 yards broad. Another considerable branch was fifty yards broad, and there were besides two inferior branches. In that vicinity the banks of the Indus are very low, that is, the inner banks seldom exceed six feet, generally only four and five; and during the rainy season the river overflows them, and expands in many places to fifteen miles. It appears evident also that the former channel ran seven miles more to the eastward.

The islands and low country which are inundated during the monsoon, consist of rich black clay; in some parts well cultivated, while others are overgrown with high grass jungle, in patches of which the labourers have temporary huts. The bed of the Indus is sand, with a small quantity of mud, and its water resembles that of the Ganges. There are many quicksands, and the islands are for the most part covered with long Jhow jungle. For seventy miles above Mitenda Kat (lat. 28° 35′ N.), where it receives the Punjnud (a river formed by the union of the Punjab waters, which, although of great bulk, is much inferior to the Indus above the junction), the two immense streams run parallel; and at Ooch, which is fifty miles up, the distance across is not above ten miles. In the months of July and August this intervening spot is one complete sheet of water, the villages, with a few exceptions, being only temporary erections: and such appears to be be the nature of the whole country it traverses, through Sinde to Hyderabad, its capital. On the left hand are some considerable towns and villages, where canals have been cut for the purposes of agriculture; but notwithstanding this excellent inland navigation, owing to political causes, there is scarcely any trade carried on between Sinde and the north. In the time of Aurengzebe a considerable trade subsisted, which has long ceased. The course and current of the river have never been examined in a scientific manner; but according to native report there is from the gulf of Cutch to Lahore a distance of 760 geographical miles, sufficient depth of water to float a vessel of 200 tons, the passage down from Lahore to the sea occupying only twelve days. Of the five rivers that give the name to the Punjab, the Indus is not considered as one, being rather the trunk or stock into which the streams of Cabul and Lahore flow.

Seventeen miles to the south of Bhukor, lat. 27° 19′ N., the Indus sends off a branch to the westward, which performs a circuit and rejoins the main body at the town of Sewan, fifty miles below the point of separation. This branch is known by the name of the Kumurgundy, or Larkhaun river, and at one place spreads into a lake ten or twelve miles across, situated near the base of the Brahooick mountains. The insulated territory is named Chandookee, and is one of the most fertile in the Sinde dominions.

The Fulalee branch of the Indus, which flows east, is of considerable size, and encircles the island on which Hyderabad stands. Ascending the Fulalee from its junction up to Hyderabad, it winds so much, that although the distance by land is not more than fourteen miles, the route by water is not less than twenty-four. The depth of water in this part of the route, during the month of August, is from four to six fathoms, and there are many villages scattered on each side of the river. At its most eastern winding it detaches the Goonee branch, which at one time joined the ocean, about a degree to the eastward of the grand trunk of the Indus; but in 1799 Futteh Ali, a late ameer, for the purposes of irrigation.

cut through an embankment of it at Alibunder, from which date until 1819 fresh water pressed one side of the bund and salt the other. But the great earthquake of Cutch caused a revolution in this eastern and almost deserted channel of the river Indus, which bounds Cutch to the westward, for instead of continuing from one to six feet deep, and about 100 yards broad, at Luckputbunder, it was converted into a branch of the sea, and became eighteen feet deep at low water, and twenty-four feet at flood, from the Cutch to the Sinde shore, a distance of above three miles, so that by this convulsion a navigation has been re-opened that had been closed for centuries.

After the Fulalee branch rejoins the Indus, the course is for some miles south, at last deviating to the south-west, in which direction it may be said to enter the ocean in one vast volume. As it approaches the estuary, several minor streams branch off from the main trunk, but they never reach the sea, being absorbed by the sands of the desert, lost in an enormous salt morass, or drawn off by the natives to irrigate their fields. From the sea up to Hyderabad, the Indus is generally about a mile wide, varying in depth from two to five fathoms; at Lahore Bunder it is four miles broad; still further down, at Dharajay Bunder, nine miles; and at the extreme of the land twelve miles from shore to shore. It is a remarkable circumstance that the tides are not perceptible in the Indus at a greater distance than sixty or sixty-five miles from the sea. At the mouth, the bore, or abrupt influx of the tide, is high and dangerous, and the velocity of the current has been estimated at four miles per hour, but this must vary greatly at different places. Like the Nile and the Ganges, the Indus is always described as having a delta, but at present, except during the height of the rains, the expression does not apply, and the river cannot with propriety be said to have more than one mouth. Neither does the space of land miscalled the delta, possess the rich and luxuriant vegetation seen near the debouchure of the more sacred stream. On the contrary, as the sea is approached, the dry parts exhibit nothing but short scrubby brushwood, the remainder, and much the larger portion, arid sand, noisome saline swamps, or shallow salt lakes.

In Hindostan there are four rivers, which were once much dreaded by religious people. It was forbidden even to touch the waters of the Caramnassa, to bathe in the Caratoya (a Bengal river called Curatya in the maps), to swim in the Gunduck, or to cross the Attock. The prohibition, however, may be evaded by crossing the Indus above its junction with the Attock. In Acber's time a body of Rajpoots, with their attendant Brahmins, crossed the Indus to chastise some refractory Afghan tribes; and Brahmins who dwell in Hindostan, cross it daily without scruple. There are other Brahmins and Hindoos of all denominations who cross it to visit the holy places in the west; but these persons have renounced the world, and retain but few practices of their castes. Though highly respected, nobody presumes to eat or communicate with them; but they go in crowds to receive their blessing.

This river is called the Sindhu, or Sindhus in Sanscrit, and Aub Sind, or the water of Sinde, by the Persians. By Abul Fazel it is described as follows: "According to some the Sinde rises between Cashmere and Cashgar, while others place its source in Khatai. It runs through the territories of Sewad, Attock, Benares, Chowpareh, and the territories of the Baloochies." From Attock downwards to Mooltan, this river has obtained the name of Attock, and further down that of Soor or Shoor, but it is generally known to Asiatics by the name of Sinde. From the length of its course, and the greatness of its volume, the Indus may be reckoned among the greatest rivers of the world, many of its tributary streams being little inferior in magni-

tude to some of the most considerable rivers of Europe, and its channel for nine hundred miles, from Attock to the sea, presents a strong and distinct barrier to the west against external invasion. It does not appear, however, that the Indus ever attained among the Hindoos that reputation for sanctity, which they have without any apparent reason attached to many inferior streams: yet there is every reason to believe that when first crossed by the Mahomedans, both banks were inhabited by sects of the Brahminical persuasion, of course equally interested in promoting its celebrity; but probably it then, as now, flowed through a sterile country and barbarous people, and never attracted the attention of poet or divine. The distance of its source from the sea has never been traced higher up than 1,350 miles, but there is reason to suppose that, including windings, the total length of its course does not fall short of 1,700 miles.—(*Elphinstone, Macartney, Pottinger, Rennell, Wilford, &c.*)

Injadree Hills.—Certain heights in the Deccan, which separate the province of Candeish from a native division contiguous, named by them the Gungleterry. They present an extraordinary aspect, and afford a singular specimen of the fantastic shapes that rocks of the trap formation assume; some of the heights, after several stages, terminate in a level table-land; others rise still higher, but on a reduced scale, so as to leave unoccupied a portion of the subjacent table; and this succession is several times repeated until the mountain ends in an insulated columnar mass.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

Injellee.—See Hidjellee.

Injeram.—A town in the Northern Circars, six miles south from Coringa; lat. 16°45′ N., lon. 82°18′ E.

Innaconda.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Guntoor, fifty-three miles N.W. from Ongole; lat. 15° 55′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E. About twelve miles east of this place is the hill of Buggleconda, which is considered by many, both natives and Europeans, as an extinct volcano, a rare object in Hindostan. There is no record, however, or even tradition of any eruption of lava, nor is there any thing to be seen on the top in the least resembling a crater. Among the natives it is remarkable for the frequent earthquakes it experiences. It is about a quarter of a mile in height from the plain, and is covered with large smooth stones, having a few bushes in the narrow chasms. According to Dr. Heyne the whole mountain is composed of basalt, dry, hard, and sonorous. The earthquakes here frequently take place several times in the course of a month, and are sometimes so violent as to move the houses of the adjacent villages, and roll down large stones from the hill into the adjacent plain. The Innaconda hill has also the reputation of being an extinct volcano, but, like that of Boggleconda, without any very strong claims to the distinction, as it exhibits no traces of lava, nor of any substance resembling it except basalt.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Irrawady River (*Iravati, the name of Indra's elephant*).—The sources of this great river have been recently ascertained to exist among the lofty mountains, about fifty miles north of a principal Borkhampti village N.E. of the Brahmaputra, situated about lat. 27° 30′ N., where it first appears in the form of numerous mountain streams, which afterwards unite, but even then in the above latitude, it is of moderate breadth, and easily fordable. The lofty mountainous chain (probably a continuation of the Himalaya) presents so complete a barrier to the north, that the fact that the Irrawady is not a continuation of the river of Tibet (the Sanpoo) may be considered as established. The course of this river, after quitting the mountains, is nearly north and south, and it is to the Burmese dominions what the Ganges is to Bengal, at once a source of fertilization and of inland navigation,

connecting the different provinces from the frontiers of Tibet and China to the sea.

The swelling of the Irrawady river is not so much connected with the quantity of rain that falls in the low countries, as by the heavy showers in the mountainous part of its tract, which indicates a long course. Whilst the drought in the champaign districts is very great, the river rises to its usual height; the part near the city of Ava being rarely refreshed by copious rains, but, like Egypt, depends on the overflowing of its river for a supply of moisture. In the months of June, July, and August, the Irrawady, which during the hot and dry season slowly winds over its sandy bed, swells over its banks, and inundates the subjacent country. The current is very rapid, but partly is counteracted by the strength of the south-west monsoon.

When the British troops entered Prome in 1825, this river was forty feet below the level of its banks: but after some days it rose so rapidly as to inundate the cavalry cantonments. After remaining stationary for several days, the inundation subsided, and the stream resumed its natural bed. After a few weeks, however, it rose again, which risings are said to occur three times a year, diminishing in volume each time until it falls to its lowest ebb. Notwithstanding the general appellation of this river is the Irrawady, yet different parts of it are distinguished by different names, taken from places of note on its bank. Its principal subsidiary stream is the Keyndaem, which see, and also the article ASSAM.—(*Symes, F. Buchanan, Lieut. Trant, Lieuts. Burlton and Wilcox, &c.*)

ISFI.—A town in Northern Hindostan, formerly the principal cantonment of Ummer Singh, the Gorkha commander, but more recently the residence of the Raja of Baghul; lat. 31° 9′ N., lon. 76° 57′ E.

ISLAMABAD (*the residence of faith*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Chittagong, situated on the west side of the Chittagong river, about eight miles above its junction with the sea, and 317 miles travelling distance east from Calcutta; lat. 22° 22′ N., lon. 91° 42′ E. In the neighbourhood a sort of canvas is made from cotton, and vessels of considerable burthen are built, both with imported timber and of that which is the growth of the district. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Chittagong is a large city, situated among trees on the banks of the sea. It is a great emporium, being the resort of Christians and other merchants."—(*Abul Fazel, Rennell, Colebrooke, &c.*)

ISLAMABAD.—A large town in the province of Cashmere, situated on the north side of the Jhylum, twenty-nine miles E.S.E. from the city of Cashmere; lat. 33° 15′ N., lon. 75° 13′ E. The Jhylum here penetrates through the narrow windings of the mountains, and has a wooden bridge about eighty yards across.—(*Foster, &c.*)

ISLAMPOOR (*the city of faith*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, eighty-five miles N. by W. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 28° 6′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E.

ISLAMNAGUR.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Malwa, which although only five miles north from the city of Bopaul, up to 1818 belonged to Sindia, but in that year, through the mediation of the British government, were procured in exchange for other territories, and transferred to Bopaul: lat. 23° 21′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E. It stands at the confluence of three streams, forming a natural ditch on three sides, and on the fourth it is protected by an impassable morass, so that it may be reckoned one of the strongest fortresses in India. It was captured by Dost Mahomed, the founder of the Bopaul dynasty, about 1710, and contains the tombs of most of his descendants.

ISMAELABAD.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty miles S.E.

from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 10′ N., lon. 76° 42′ E.

Itchapoor.—A town the Northern Circars, thirty miles S.W. from Ganjam; lat. 19° 8′ N., lon. 35° E. This is a place of some extent with the ruins of a mud fort, situated in a fine country in the midst of mangoe-groves, on the northern branch of the Sonspoor river, but it is straggling and ill-built. Formerly there was a small cantonment here, but since the district courts have been established at Burrampoor, the troops have been also transferred to that place.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

J.

Jabooah.—A town in the province of Malwa, subdivision of Rath, the capital of a petty principality belonging to Raja Bhugwunt Singh; lat. 22° 46′ N., lon. 74° 39′ E. This place is beautifully situated in a rich valley at the bottom of a range of high mountains. The roads throughout the Jabooah territory are tolerably good, the country well watered, but the hills are covered with low jungle. A large proportion of the inhabitants consist of the more civilized classes of the Bheel race. In 1819 the gross revenues of Jabooah were computed at 50,000 rupees, but they were expected to amount to 80,000 in 1824.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Jacatra.—A district in the island of Java, which was formerly governed by its own kings, but the last of these having been subdued by the Dutch East-India Company in A.D. 1619, they have ever since possessed it by right of conquest. Before this revolution, Jacatra town was the capital, but has since been superseded by Batavia, which was built very near the former by the Dutch governor-general, John Pietersen Coen, immediately after its conquest. The ancient name of the Jacatra district was Sunda Kalapa, from whence the straits derived their name.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Jacotta.—A town on the sea-coast of Cochin, where, according to a tradition in Malabar, St. Thomas landed; lat. 10° 10′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E.

Jaffierabad (*Jafarabad*).—A town in the province of Berar, twenty-five miles north from Jaulna; lat. 20° 13′ N., lon. 76° 14′ E.

Jaffiergunge (*Jafarganj*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, situated on the north bank of the Ganges, about forty-two miles W. by N. from the city of Dacca.

Jafnapatam.—A town and fortress in the island of Ceylon, situated at some distance from the main ocean; but there is a communication by means of an inlet navigable for boats; lat. 9° 36′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E. The fort is of a pentagonal form, and regularly built, with five bastions, broad ditches, and an extensive glacis: the pettah stands half a mile to the eastward, containing several thousand inhabitants, of various shades, colours, and religions. On account of its salubrity and cheapness, Jafna is a great resort of the Dutch families, and it is the only district in Ceylon the revenue of which exceeds the expenditure. Agriculture flourishes, and more especially the cultivation of tobacco; the two other articles of export are the trunks of palmira-trees and chank shells. Dependent on the Jafna province, and at a small distance off shore, are several islands, which the Dutch have named after their native cities Delft, Leyden, Haarlem, and Amsterdam. On these, horses and cattle are bred, the pasture being excellent. The Jafnapatam province comprehends rather less than one-fourth of the whole island; but it is by far the most populous, and within its limits the ruins of thirty-two churches are still to be seen.—(*Perceval, Cordiner, &c.*)

Jaganaikpooram.—A Dutch set-

tlement in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, situated on the banks of the small river Eliseram, about forty miles travelling distance from the town of Rajamundry. This is now a very miserable place, without colonists, except the Dutch resident, and the European dwellings in ruins. There is still a tolerable bazar; and two pagodas with handsome porticoes, covered with large figures well finished in shell chunam, form a useful landmark for vessels steering into Coringa bay.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

JAGEPOOR (*Jehajpoor*).—A town or large village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, thirty-five miles N.N.E. from the city of Cuttack; lat. 20° 52′ N., lon. 86° 24′ E. This place stands on the south side of the Byturnee river, which in the rains is almost half a mile broad. It is a large straggling town composed of mud and thatch huts, extending one mile and a-half along the Byturnee, and still manufactures a good deal of cloth. During the Mogul government it was a place of importance, and the remains of several Mahomedan edifices are still visible; but the Hindoo remains are much the most interesting, more especially a sort of temple in the form of a gallery. This contains a collection of images of a stature rather exceeding the human, curiously carved in black stone of an exquisite polish, representing the principal deities of the Hindoo Pantheon, surrounded by their attendants and personified attributes. The most remarkable is the skeleton figure of an aged female, in the style of the skeleton figure at Elora, and in the vicinity many images and architectural ruins are found scattered about. Jagepoor is deemed a holy place and called the first gate of Juggernauth, to whom there is a temple dedicated, resembling the great pagoda at Pooree.

The numerous well-executed stone temples on both sides of the Byturnee prove the ancient sanctity of the place, formerly the capital of the Orissan monarchy (not of a separate principality); but the remains of the nour or palace present only a confused heap of ruins. Besides other claims to veneration, Jagepoor derives great mythological importance from its resting on the navel of a large giant or demon overthrown by Vishnu, named Gaya Asur, whose head is under Gaya in Bahar, and feet at Rajamundry. Within the enclosure of a temple here, there is a well or pit, that reaches down to the navel of the monster, into which Hindoo pilgrims throw rice and sweetmeats, in order to expiate the sins of their ancestors. In 1821, during a sudden rising of the water, the accumulated mass of sour rice cake was regorged, and deluged the whole precincts with filth. Jagepoor was attacked by Toghan Khan, the Mahomedan viceroy of Bengal, so early as A.D. 1243, and early in the eighteenth century was the residence of Mahomed Tucky Khan, the governor of the province, who was defeated by the Nabob of Bengal.—(*Stirling, Fullarton, Stewart, Upton, &c.*)

JAGHIRE.—In the Carnatic.—See CHINGLEPUT.

JAGRAM (*Jayagrama*).—A town in the Delhi province, twenty-three miles S.E. from Luddeeanna; lat. 30° 40′ N., lon. 75° 28′ E.

JAHIL.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fifty-eight miles N.W. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 27° 10′ N., lon. 73° 56′ E.

JAHJOW.—A village in the province of Agra, fifteen miles S. by W. from the city of Agra. This place is remarkable for having been the scene of two decisive battles, the first fought in 1658, when Aurengzebe defeated his brother, Dara Shecoh; and the second in 1707, between the son and grandson of Aurenzebe, Shah Allum and Azim Ushaun, when the latter was defeated and slain.—(*Hunter, &c.*)

JAHNEVI RIVER.—A river of Northern Hindostan, one of the car-

liest and most important tributaries to the Ganges; for although the Bhagirathi be esteemed the holy and celebrated Ganges, yet the Jahnevi is the largest stream. According to native report there is a pass by the course of this river into Bhote or Tibet, by which people from Reital and the upper villages of Roween come to purchase salt, blankets and wool, in exchange for grain.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Jains.—See South Canara, and Sravana Belgula.

Jaitpoor.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, twenty miles N.E. from Junaghur; lat. 20° 42′ N., lon. 70° 49′ E. In 1808 the perpetual tribute to the Guicowar, payable by the Catty chiefs of Jaitpoor, was fixed at 38,000 rupees.

Jajarcote (*Jharjhara cata, the bamboo fortress or stockade*).—A hilly tract of country in the Nepaulese dominions, situated between the Gogra and Bahari; but although within a few miles' distance of the king of Oude's dominions, little is known respecting its circumstances; indeed, scarcely two natives call it by the same name. The principal town is at Mathagari, where the Nepaulese, since their conquest, have built a fort. The town of Jajarcote stands in lat. 28° 51′ N., lon. 81° 8′ E., 135 miles N. by W. from Lucknow.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Jajghur.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, which was wrested from the Rana of Odeypoor by Zalim Singh of Kotah, about the year 1803. The surrounding country comprehends eighty-four towns and villages, twenty-two of which are exclusively inhabited by Meenas, who only pay personal service to the government they live under.

Jalalgunge.—A town in the Rungpoor district, 135 miles W.N.W. from Dacca; lat. 25° 30′ N., lon. 89° 28′ E.

Jallinder (*Jala Indra*).—A own in the province of Lahore, formerly a residence of the Afghans, and still inhabited by some of their descendants, but subject to the Seikhs; lat. 31° 18′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E., fifty-two miles S.E. from Amritsir. The modern houses are mostly constructed from the ruinous materials of those formerly occupied by the Afghans. In 1808 Jallinder was held in jaghire by two brothers, at war with each other, in prosecution of which they kept up a constant discharge of fire-arms during the day, and at night set fire to each others' corn fields, until they were both subdued by Runjeet Singh of Lahore.—(*11th Register, &c.*)

Jalnapoor.—A district in the province of Aurungabad belonging to the Nizam, situated between the 19th and 20th degrees of north latitude. The principal towns are Jalna, Budnapoor, and Findka; the chief streams the Poorna and the Doodna. At the Maharatta peace of 1803 this territory was ceded to the British government, and afterwards transferred by the latter to the Nizam. Although a brigade of troops has been long stationed within the limits of Jalnapoor, and it has annually been traversed for many years by civil functionaries, scarcely any thing is known respecting its condition.

Jalna.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, the capital of the preceding district, forty miles east from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 52′ N., lon. 76° 8′ E. This place is intersected by a small river, on one side of which is a town, on the other a town and fort, in the vicinity of which a brigade of British troops is cantoned.—(*7th and 12th Registers, &c.*)

Jalown.—A considerable town in the province of Agra, situated on a gently rising ground, thirty miles west from Kalpee; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 79° 13′ E. Before the British dominions extended thus far, Jalown was a considerable mart for inland traffic, especially of cotton, which was transported from overland to

Caunpoor on the Ganges, a distance of seventy miles, and hence to Mirzapoor by water. Cotton of a good quality is still cultivated in the neighbourhood, frequently intermixed with grain. Nana Govind Row, ruler of Jalown, died in 1823, and was succeeded by his son Balarow. By the decease of the first, pensions to the amount of 1,18,360 rupees per annum out of the Saugur revenue lapsed to the British government, these stipends having been expressly conferred as life-grants.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

JALORE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-three miles south from Odeypoor; lat. 24° 30′ N., lon. 74° 25′ E.

JALRA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Maheidpoor, which in 1820 contained about 300 houses. It stands about ten miles north from Maheidpoor; lat. 23° 36′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E.

JAIRA PATUN.—See PATUN.

JAMBEE.—A district on the north-eastern coast of Sumatra, extending along a river of the same name. In A.D. 1820 it was bounded on the north-east by the straits west of the Lingen Archipelago; on the north-west by thick forests that separate it from Indragiri: to the westward by the celebrated empire of Menancabow and the Korinchi country; and to the south-east by a wild woody tract, partially occupied by the Kubiles, an idolatrous race subject to the raja of Palembang. The country on the sea-coast is flat and swampy, but rises as it recedes from the shore towards the central chain of mountains, every where much intersected by streams and rivers, on whose banks only cultivation is attempted every where else being one undisturbed jungle. At the town of Jambee the surface is only twenty feet above the level of the river when driest. The soil is a bed of vegetable mould covering a bed of clay mixed with fine sand, under which, at the depth of twelve feet, is a stratum of peat. Neither stone nor gravel belong naturally to the soil, but fragments of quartz and iron-stone are washed down by the Jambee river, which is said to have its source in the mountains of Menancabow, and at the town of Jambee is three fathoms deep at low water, and 460 yards broad. When swelled by the rains it rises fifteen feet and inundates the low country.

In 1820 Jambee town was said to contain 700 men capable of bearing arms, and in all about 3,000 persons. Between this capital and Tamiang there are fifty rivers, on each of which there are petty trading or piratical towns, or both, according to circumstances. These are governed by petty chiefs, whose dominions are only limited by the strength of his maritime power, little comparatively of the inland country being inhabited. Besides the fixed population, there are on the sea-coast a distinct class named Orang Laut, or men of the sea, who live perpetually in small boats, and are a squalid, half-naked, miserable looking race, generally covered with cutaneous eruptions. The Malays also are aquatic animals, many of them preferring a residence on rafts, or in houses raised on posts in the midst of a swamp, to dwelling on the high and dry spots in their immediate vicinity. The consequence is that they reject agriculture, depend on the sea, and seldom cultivate even the commonest roots and vegetables for daily consumption. Further inland above Delli the cultivators are two distinct races, viz. the Orang Allas, a people from Menancabow, and the Orang Karou, a tribe of Battas, who raise rice and pepper.—(*Ibbetson, Crooke, &c.*)

JAMBEE.—The capital of the above district, situated in latitude 1° 32′ S., and eighty-three miles distant from the mouth of the river. In 1820 this place extended about three-fourths of a mile on both sides of the river, and consisted mostly of mat huts and hovels, intermixed with a few of a superior description, but none of masonry. A small floating raft is not an uncommon appendage

o each house. The chief products re dragon's-blood, benzoin, and ratans; the imports coarse European and Chinese ware, opium, and Siamese alt; and the trade is almost wholly onfined to Singapoor. In the town nd neighbourhood Lieut. Crooke and Ir. Ibbetson, in 1820, discovered any Hindoo granite statues of vaous descriptions, some almost of full ze: but the natives had no tradition f their origin, nor could they point ut the vestiges of any temple to hich they might have belonged. It probable, however, that some such emains do exist in the neighbourood, from the number of carved ones (which must have been all transorted from the central mountains) attered about in different parts of e town. The great eruption of the umbhawa volcano was heard here, d the trees covered with ashes.—*Ibbetson, Crooke, &c.*)

JAMBOE (*Jambhu*).—A town and etty principality in the Kohistan, or ghlands of the Lahore province, t. 32° 56′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E., ninetyven miles north from Amritsir. The nits of the Jamboe raja's territories uctuate greatly according to circumances, and he is generally tributary the Seiks. In 1783 the revenues this principality were estimated at e lacks of rupees, besides that proiced by Buddoo and Chandahnee. he face of the country is hilly and oody, and the greater portion thinly habited, owing to the incursions of e Seiks, and the predatory habits its natives. The road to the city Jamboe in a south-west direction s through a defile of sand for many iles, the sides of which consist of ity rocks nearly perpendicular.

The town of Jamboe stands on the le of a hill, and contains two divions, called the upper and lower wns The bottom of the hill is ashed by the Ravey, here about rty or fifty yards broad, and fordable most seasons of the year, with any water-mills on its banks for the inding of corn. In 1783 (for we ve no more recent intelligence) Jamboe was a town of considerable commercial resort, as it was then an entrepôt between Cashmere and the Delhi province; but so many changes have taken place since that date, that the trade has also probably undergone a great variety of mutations. The shawls then exported from Cashmere by this route were packed in bales of a certain weight and ascertained value, and were not subsequently opened until they reached their destined market. These bales were usually carried by men, natives of Cashmere, the precipitous nature of the country precluding the employment of cattle for that purpose. Jamboe is noted for producing a white mulberry of an exquisite flavour.

How this little territory acquired a name (Jambhu) which in the ancient Hindoo mythological poems is used to designate all India (Jambhu Dwipa), we are not informed. In some of these compositions allusion is made to a temple of the sun in Mettabana, on the river Chandrabhaga (the Chinaub or Acesines), alleged by modern pundits to have been situated somewhere near to the modern town of Jamboe. The ancient Jambhu Dwipa is described as having been surrounded by a salt sea, and it is possible the ocean may at one time have reached to the base of these mountains, forming the high table-land into islands.—(*Forster, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

JAMBOOTEE.—A fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Darwar. In 1820, when visited by Dr. Marshall, this place was ruled by Vencatty Row, under the title of Dessye, who formerly derived his whole subsistence from external plunder: but was much esteemed by his own people, for, whatever delight he took in desolating the lands of his neighbours, he was very sensible that an opposite treatment would best suit his own. Jambootee in consequence exhibited an appearance of superior neatness and comfort, when compared with the neighbouring towns; nor did the Dessye himself betray any external signs in his manners of the fero-

cious robber, which he in reality was. —(*Marshall, &c.*)

JAMGHAUT.—A remarkable pass at the extremity of the table-land of Malwa towards the Nerbudda, through the Vindhya mountains, in the province of Malwa, about thirty miles S. by W. from Indore; lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 75° 49′ E., 2,328 feet above the level of the sea. The great Vindhyan chain rises here about 1,600 feet nearly perpendicular from the valley of the Nerbudda, and the high road by Mheyshur from the Deccan scaling this ghaut, transports the traveller at once by a steep ascent to the table-land of Malwa. There is another pass to the east of the Jamghaut by the Koteedah and Jamaun ghauts from Mheyshur to Mandow, of an entirely different character, there being no abrupt acclivity, the road winding for a long tract through the wilds of the mountains.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

JAMDROO (*or Palte*) LAKE.—A lake in Tibet of a singular construction, and, according to native authority, situated somewhere about the twenty-ninth degree of north latitude and ninety-fifth of east longitude; but its existence in any shape whatever may be considered doubtful According to a chief of the Mismees, there is a large lake about the above position, in the country of the Gendoos, which gives rise to a river that flows eastward. This is possibly the Jamdroo Palte, and the river may be the Bonash, which is said to flow eastward as far as the meridian of Koliaber, then turns west, and enters the Brahmaputra opposite to Goalpara. It is also called the Demosha, and may be the Omchoo of Duhalde, in whose map a large lake occurs, without any name, and placed south of Peiti near the Sanpoo; but it appears to be too far west, nor does the Omchoo rise from it.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

JANAEPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, division of Mundessor, close to the fort of that name, of which it is in fact a part of the pettah. It stands on the Sew river, and in 1820 contained about 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

JANGUIRA.—A village in the province of Bengal, district of Boglipoor, situated on the river Ganges, and having a remarkable fakeer's tomb in its neighbourhood.

JANJOWLA.—A town in the province of Beeder, fifty-four miles W. from the city of that name; lat 17° 50′ N., lon. 76° 51′ E.

JANSET.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Merut, formerly the seat of the Seids of Bara, so powerful during the anarchical stage of the Delhi empire, subsequent to the death of Aurengzebe; lat. 29° 20′ N. —(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

JAPARA.—A town and fortress on the north coast of the island of Java, thirty-six miles N.N E. from Samarang, lat. 6° 32′ S., lon. 110° 13′ E. The Chinese here form a considerable portion of the population and possess a temple. Three miles inland are the ruins of the ancient Javanese city of Japara. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the divisions of Japara and Jawana contained 103,290 inhabitants, of which number 2,290 were Chinese.—(*Raffles, Thorn, Stavorinus, &c.*)

JARESANG.—A town in the Nepaulese dominions, situated on the east side of the Arun, in a plain well-cultivated country, about ninety-eight miles N.N W. from the town of Purneah; lat. 27° 7′ N., lon. 86° 56′ E

JAVADEO (*Jacadevi*).—A subdivision of the Barramahal province, situated above the eastern ghauts, yet within the ancient Hindoo geographical limits of Dravida. It takes its name from a fortified mountain.

JAJEMOW.—A town in the province of Allahabad, eight miles S.S E. from Cawnpoor; lat. 26° 28′ N., lon. 80° 16′ E.

JAULON.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 165 miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat 23° 23′ N., lon. 85° 56′ E.

JAUM.—A small town in the pro-

vince of Malwa, ceded by Holcar, thirty-two miles south from Indore; near which is a well-built stone ghaut-ry, converted by Sir John Malcolm into a dépôt for the brigade stationed at Mow. The crest of the Jaum ghaut is 2,328 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 75° 49′ E.

JACMNILR.—The chief town of a pergunnah in the province of Candeish and district of Candeish, acquired from the Peshwa by the British government, and situated about fifty miles S.W. by S. from Boorhanpoor, lat. 20° 54′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

JAUTS.—See BHURTPOOR.

JAVA.

(Yava, barley.)

A large island in the Eastern seas, situated between the sixth and ninth degrees of south latitude, the south-eastern point being in lat. 8° 41′ S., lon. 114° 25′ E. To the south and west its shores are washed by the Indian ocean; to the north-west lies the island of Sumatra; to the north, Borneo; to the north-east, Celebes; and to the east it is separated by two narrow straits from Madura and Bally isles. In length it has been estimated at 666 miles; its breadth varies from 135 to 56 miles, the superficial area, including Madura, comprehending about 45,724 square miles. By the natives it is called Tana Jawa, the land of Java, and Nusa Jawa, the island of Java. In 1815, during the British administration, it was subdivided into the following districts and provinces, each of which will be found described under its respective head.

Bantam.
Batavia and environs.
Buitzenzorg.
Priangen regencies.
Cheribon.
Tagal.
Pacalungan.
Samarang.
Kedu.
Grobogan and Jipang.
Japara and Juwana.
Rembang.
Gressic.
Surabaya.
Passaruan.
Probolingo.
Banawangi.
Suracarta, Yugyacarta, } Native provinces.
Bancalang, Samenap, } In Madura isle.

Commencing from the west, the province of Bantam occupies a large section of the island, washed on three sides by the sea. Next in succession towards the east is the modern division of Batavia, formerly Jacatra, which includes the capital. South from this are the Priangen, or regencies (thus named from the titles given by the Dutch to the chief native authorities), the central and southern of which, stretching from Bantam to Cheribon, are extremely mountainous. To the eastward of these, crossing the island from north to south, is the province of Cheribon, subdivided into ten districts; but further east it is only the northern and a few of the inland tracts, such as Surabaya, that are directly subject to the Dutch authority. Inland of Samarang and Pacalungan is the rich and fertile division of Kedu. The chief towns are named after the districts, and are usually situated on small rivers, at no great distance from the sea.

The native provinces are partitioned between two native sovereigns, viz. the Susuhunan, or emperor of Java, residing at Suracarta, on the Solo river; and the sultan, whose capital is Yugyacarta, near the south, in the former province of Mataram. These territories include several of the richest divisions of the island, and occupy nearly the whole of the southern coast, from Cheribon to Malang, an extent of above 250 miles, and comprehending about a fourth of the island.

The districts near the coasts are mostly separated by rivers, and those of the interior by ranges of hills and mountains. The principal harbour is

at Surabaya, formed by the approaching extremities of Java and Madura. The next in importance are the roads of Batavia, sheltered by several islands; but the sea being usually smooth and the weather moderate, good anchorage, nearly at all seasons of the year, may be found along the northern shores. The south coast, on the contrary, owing to its exposure to the great Indian ocean, and consequent violence of the surf, has no good harbours, and is but little frequented by shipping. The best yet explored in this quarter are those of Chelachap and Pachitan.

The interior of Java, from one extremity to the other, is marked by an uninterrupted range of lofty mountains, varying in their elevation from 5,000 to 12,000 feet, and proving their volcanic origin by their round bases and tapering summits. The height of Arjuna, a mountain in the eastern quarter, has been fixed at 10,614 feet above the level of the sea; and those of Semeru and Tegal are known to be still higher. Gunung Karang, a mountain due south of Bantam, has been ascertained to be 5,263 feet high, and is a well-known landmark to mariners. The Blue Mountains, seen from the roads of Batavia, are situated about fifty miles south of the town. In one particular series there are thirty-eight mountains, all possessing the universal conical figure of volcanoes, although differing otherwise in external appearance. They all rise from a plain, but little elevated above the level of the sea, and each appears to be a separate mountain independently produced. The fires of several have been long extinguished; but others still discharge sulphureous vapours, and occasionally volcanic eruptions.

As may be inferred from its mountainous surface, Java is singularly favoured in the number of its rivers, although the size of the island does not admit of their accumulating a great body of water. There are, however, at least fifty navigable during the wet season; and the lesser streams, so precious to the agriculturist, are many hundreds. The largest and most important river is that of Solo, which rises in Kadawang, flows past Suracarta, and finally joins the sea at Gressic. Including windings, the space gone over from Suracarta to Gressic has been estimated at 356 miles, the whole of which is not interrupted by any serious impediment, even to vessels of 200 tons. Eastward from the mouth of the Solo river, for a considerable distance, the country is almost an entire swamp, intersected by numerous salt-water creeks and channels. The river of Surabaya is the next in magnitude and length of course; but there are many other smaller ones, capable of floating the teak timber from the central forests, mostly however impeded at their mouths by mud bars and banks, annually increasing. There are no large lakes, but many extensive swamps, overflowed during the monsoon. Among the hills some beautiful lakes of a small size have lately been discovered, some evidently the craters of extinct volcanoes.

The general aspect on the north coast is low, in many parts marshy, and overgrown with mangrove bushes; while the south coast is a series of rocks and precipices, that rise from the beach to a considerable height. In the middle of the island stupendous chains of mountains stretch longitudinally, while others of inferior altitude inclose plains and vallies. Proceeding inland from Batavia, there is an almost imperceptible acclivity for about forty miles; but near Samarang, where the mountains approach the sea, the ascent is more abrupt. While quitting the low northern coast, the traveller finds the air to improve sensibly every five miles he advances towards the centre, until he ascends the high chain, where he finds perpetual verdure in the hottest seasons, and a cool fresh atmosphere.

The geological formation of Java appears to be essentially volcanic, being the first of a continuous series of volcanoes, twenty-five degrees east from the Straits of Sunda. No gra-

nite has yet been discovered in Java; among the natural curiosities are the mud volcanoes, dispersed through a country several miles in circumference. These form into a large hemispherical mass, about sixteen feet in diameter, consisting of black earth mixed with water, rise to the height of from twenty to thirty feet, explode with a dull noise, scattering about a volume of black mud; and, after an interval of a few seconds, rise, form, and explode again. In this manner the volcanic ebullition goes on without interruption, dispersing and reproducing its globular body. The water it contains is strongly impregnated with muriate of soda, and yields on evaporation above 200 tons of good culinary salt annually.

The seasons in all equatorial countries are not distinguished as hot and cold, but as wet and dry; in Java they are greatly regulated by the periodical winds, the setting in of which is not determined within a few weeks. The heaviest rains take place in December and January; the driest weather in July and August, when the nights are cool, although the days be excessively hot. The weather is most unsettled while the monsoons is changing; but the violent storms and hurricanes experienced in the West-Indies are here unknown. Thunder storms are frequent, and the lightning remarkably vivid, and frequently attended with casualties. Earthquakes are frequent in the vicinity, but the European towns rarely sustain any injury. At Batavia, Samarang, and Surabaya, the thermometer frequently rises above 90°; but the usual range is 72° evening and morning, and 83° at noon. On some of the inland hills, where Europeans reside, at an elevation of about 4,000 feet, the thermometer ranges from 50° to 60° during the clear season; and on the summit of Sindoro it has been observed as low as 27°, producing natural ice as thick as a Spanish dollar. From its insular construction Java enjoys the benefit of land and sea-breezes, and from the beach to the highest mountains a regular diminution of temperature; indeed, with the exception of Batavia and some tracts on the northern coast, Java equals in salubrity the healthiest portions of British India or any other tropical region.

Among the swampy marshes, however, of the north coast, some spots are to be found of a singularly pestilential description, and among these Batavia, the capital, stands pre-eminent, the inflictions of nature having been aggravated by the insane avarice of man. Until about A.D. 1810, the European inhabitants were confined within the precincts of this most unwholesome city, but from the moment that its walls were demolished, the drawbridges let down, and free egress to the country permitted, the population began to migrate to a more healthy climate, which, strange to say, they found at a distance not exceeding three miles. Necessity may have at first dictated the selection of the spot, but a perseverance in the policy of confining the Europeans within its walls, after so thorough a conviction of its insalubrity, proved that a sordid monopoly was more valued than the lives of its inhabitants.

Between the summits of the mountains and the sea-shore, Java may be said to possess six different climates (each furnishing a copious indigenous botany), where the productions of almost every region in the world may find a congenial spot. The vegetable classes that contribute so largely to the sustenance of the human race, are here found in astonishing variety, and of rice, the most important, Java has long been the granary of the Eastern archipelago. The other agricultural productions are so numerous that they only admit of being named, *viz.* Indian corn, sugar, coffee, pepper, indigo, tobacco, aniseed, cummin seed, long pepper, cubebs, and other medicinal plants, coco-nuts, the bread fruit, tuberous roots of many descriptions, such as yams and potatoes, the cassada, sago, wheat, and oil-giving plants. By Ptolemy, Java is named the island

of barley: but, except in a few of the cold mountainous spots, where it has been cultivated by Europeans, the grain to the natives is wholly unknown.

No quarter of the globe can boast an equal abundance and variety of indigenous plants, such as the mangostein, dorian, rambosteen, jacks, mangoes, plantains, guavas, pineapples, papaws, custard-apples, pomegranates, tamarinds, oranges, citrons, lemons, pumplemooses (or shaddocks), melons, pumpkins, &c.; and in the higher tracts wild raspberries, peaches, Chinese pears, and some other fruits imported from Japan, the Cape of Good Hope, and China. Innumerable flowers bloom in succession throughout the whole year, and the catalogue of ornamental trees and shrubs, and medicinal plants, is almost without limit. The celebrated upas, or poison-tree, is now established to be entirely of fabulous existence, and a bold experiment on the credulity of persons at a distance.

The soil of Java is naturally rich, and remarkable for its depth (sometimes twelve feet), probably owing to the volcanic constitution of the island, and the constant accession of new matter washed down from the mountains. The best soil resembles the richest garden-mould of Europe, and wherever it can be exposed to irrigation, requires no manure for the rice seed, and will bear without impoverishment a light and a heavy crop per annum. The best soils are usually found near the beds of rivers, in valleys, and on the slopes of the loftiest mountains; the worst on the ranges of low calcareous hills scattered throughout the island. An English acre of good land, besides a green crop, has been found to yield 841 pounds of clean rice per annum, a double crop of maize 848 pounds. Luxuriant crops of tobacco are here raised without the assistance of manure, and the fields afford year after year a crop of rice and one of tobacco, succeeding each other. In Java no metals occur in such quantities as to reward the operations of the miner. Mercury exists in minute particles in the clay of the low lands of Damack, but it has never been found in any amount or traced to a mine. No diamonds or precious gems have ever been found, but various minerals of the schorl, quartz, potstone, felspar, and trap families.

Java is quite an agricultural country, and its inhabitants a nation of husbandmen. To the crop the mechanic looks for his wages, the soldier for his pay, the magistrate for his salary, the priest for his stipend, and the government for its revenue: yet a large proportion of the island (seven-eighths) is still either neglected or badly cultivated. The proprietary right of the sovereign (whether exercised by native princes or colonial authority) to the land is here unequivocally established, and arbitrarily exercised; such indeed is the universality of the principle, that probably not a hundred acres in his whole dominions could be pointed out as clearly independent of the ruler, nor could the notion of a proprietary right in the soil be easily rendered intelligible to a native. No law or usage invests the oldest occupant of the land he has reclaimed from waste, or the farm he has enriched by his industry, with the slightest inherent property in its future devolution. As a matter of convenience the same cultivator may continue to occupy the same field for life, and his family may afterwards succeed, but none of them can retain possession against the will of the sovereign, or even of their immediate superior. Besides this, a very large share of the crops is exacted, one half of the produce of the wet lands, and one-third of the dry have long been the acknowledged and well known proportion claimed by the government.

By the temporary sway of the British, an entire revolution was effected in the mode of levying the revenue and assessing the taxes on agriculture; in the first place, by the entire abolition of forced deliveries

at inadequate rates, and of all feudal services, with the proclamation of perfect freedom of cultivation and trade; in the second, by the assumption by government of the direct superintendence of the land, with the collection of its rents and resources; and thirdly, by the renting of the lands thus assumed to the actual occupants thereof, in large or small estates, according to circumstances, and on leases for moderate terms. These measures were carried into execution during the years 1814 and 1815. The revenues actually realized in cash by the British government during 1814-15, and before the land revenues had become effectual, amounted to 65,00,000 rupees, to which, if one-third be added for the revenue of the native provinces, would make the total revenue of the island about £870,000. Among the ways and means of the old Dutch government were taxes on gambling-houses, cock-fighting, and the long queues worn by the Chinese, according to their lengths.

For the commercial details of Java the reader is referred to the article Batavia, and other towns respectively. Pepper, which for some time formed the principal export of Bantam, has long ceased to be cultivated to any extent. By the Javanese the sugar-cane is only eaten in its natural state as a sweetmeat, for they are ignorant of any artificial method of expressing the saccharine juice, and obtaining crystallized sugar; a complicated process left exclusively to the Chinese. Java is the only island of the archipelago in which the teak-tree abounds. The Batavia arrack is made from a mixture consisting of sixty-two parts molasses; toddy or palm-wine, three parts; and rice thirty-five parts, = a hundred, which yields about twenty-three per cent. distilled proof arrack. Among the natives of the Eastern Isles, and more especially of Java, the women are almost the sole merchants and brokers, the men seldom interfering, at least in the retail business. Indeed, in the latter, from the common man to the viceroy of a province, it is usual for the husband to entrust his pecuniary affairs entirely to his wife. There is not much internal traffic, although few countries can boast of better roads. One carriage road extends from the west of Bantam to near the eastern extremity 800 miles in length, a monument of General Daendel's perseverance, but not of his humanity, as 12,000 lives were supposed to have been expended in its construction. A brass coin, impressed with fantastic figures, now unintelligible, appears to have been the currency of the Buddhist sovereigns who reigned over Mojopahit. No gold coin has ever been discovered, and silver ones only once or twice.

A considerable article of Javanese commerce is in the article of birds'-nests, the island containing many caverns suited to the habits of the hirundo esculenta, which construct the edible nests so highly prized by the Chinese. The mucilaginous composition which gives the zest to this extraordinary condiment has not yet been satisfactorily traced to its source. The substance, whatever it be, is always essentially the same, differing only in colour, according to the relative age of the nest; whereas, if it consisted of animal gelatin procured from the ocean, it would be putrescent and diversified. Much of their excellence and peculiar properties depend on the situation in which they are constructed, whether dry and ventilated, or the reverse, and even of the substance to which they are fixed. The best birds'-nests are procured in the deepest caverns, and where, being stuck against the sides, they imbibe a nitrous taste, without which they are little esteemed by the Chinese. It is not unusual for a European, when he takes a rock under his superintendence, after clearing away all the old nests, and fumigating the cavern, to allow the birds to remain undisturbed for two or three years, in order that they may multiply, for when a swallow rock is once brought into proper order, it will bear two gatherings in the year.

In Java every object seems in-

pregnated with life. A glass of water taken out of the canal at Batavia, becomes in a few hours a collection of animated matter, the minute portions of which, multiplying by division and subdivision, move about with astonishing rapidity, and the bay, teeming with myriads of living creatures, exhibits in the night-time a brilliant phosphorescent light. The insect tribes are also extremely numerous; snakes, scorpions, centipedes, spiders, ants, musquitoes, flying bugs, fire-flies, and many other disgusting and dangerous vermin swarm in the roads, houses, and bedchambers. A venomous spider is very common in the thickets of Java, the body of which is two inches in diameter, and the length of the fore-legs or claws four inches, covered with hair, the colour black, the mouth red. The forests and mountains contain an immense number and variety of birds, from the cassowary to the humming-bird, which is scarcely larger than a stout bee. Among the birds are beautiful loories and parroquets, argus pheasants, the golden thrush, and kingsfisher. The great boa constrictor snake, found in the Javanese forests, is superior in magnitude to the alligator, and no less formidable in other respects; some of this species have been killed thirty feet in length

In 1812-13 the population of the provinces under the immediate superintendence of British authorities was about 2,365,066, and in 1815 the grand total of the whole island, including Madura, was 4,615,270 persons. Of these probably about three millions reside in the provinces directly subordinate to European dominion; the remainder in the territories still subject to the native princes.

Besides the natives there is here a rapidly increasing race of foreigners, the Chinese, who already exceed 100,000, and promise under a settled government to accumulate tenfold. They reside principally in the three Dutch capitals, Samarang, Surabaya, and Batavia, but they are also generally dispersed throughout the country. A large proportion of these are the progeny of families long settled on the island; but additions are also yearly received of above a thousand, who, by their persevering industry, soon attain comparative opulence. No Chinese families ever accompany them: but as the men usually marry into the families already settled, a numerous mixed race, scarcely to be distinguished from the genuine Chinese, is propagated. In all matters of inheritance and minor affairs, the Chinese are regulated by their own laws, administered by Chinese captains and lieutenants, appointed by the government to each distinct society. The other foreigners settled in Java are Coromandel and Malabar Indians, usually termed Moors; Buggesses, Malays, and Arabs. In 1814 the total number of slaves was 27,142, belonging to Europeans and Chinese.

Among the native Javanese the sovereign is named the Susuhunan or Sultan, and is the sole fountain of all honour and distincion. His family are called Pangerans, his queen Ratu, the heir-apparent Pangeran Adepati, and the prime minister Raden Adepati. The regents or chiefs of districts are styled Bopaties, Tamungongs, and Angabies; the petty chiefs Radens, Mantries, &c.—all words of Sanscrit derivation. Every village, as in Hindostan, forms a community within itself. The craton, or palace of the prince, is an extensive square, enclosed by a high wall, planted with cannon, and a ditch, the interior space subdivided into quarters. The circumference of the wall of the craton of Yugyacarta is not less than three miles, and when taken by assault in 1812 contained about ten thousand persons. That of Suracarta is of an inferior description.

Compared with the natives of Hindostan, the Javanese have few prejudices regarding food, although, as Mahomedans, they abstain rigidly from swine's flesh, and usually from inebriating liquors; many also still abstain from the flesh of the sacred cow; but, with these exceptions,

scarcely any thing comes amiss, except milk, which is rejected in every shape whatever; a remarkable peculiarity, considering that they were at one period most undoubtedly Hindoos. It is worthy of note also that a decided aversion to milk exists in that portion of continental Asia between Siam and China, in which many popular usages are found similar to those of the East insular nations, which repugnance extends also to the rejection of butter and cheese.

The Javanese are generally about the middle size of Europeans, straight and well made, all the joints of their hands and feet remarkably small, and the colour of their skin a deep brown, approaching to black. Jet black is the favourite colour of the teeth with both sexes, and they compare to monkeys those who keep them of the natural white colour. In consequence of this prejudice, they stain their teeth of the deepest black, except the two front ones, which they cover with gold leaf, and whenever the dye or gilding are worn out they are very attentive in replacing it. In the mountainous regions they are subject to goitres, by them ascribed to the quality of the water. That it does not wholly depend on elevation is proved by its being universal in a village near the base of the Tengar mountains, while in another spot still higher, through which the same stream descends, there exists no such deformity. The whole are polygamists, and remarkably indifferent as to the chastity of their females, in this respect exhibiting a striking contrast to the Malays and Sumatrans.

As has already been observed, the established form of government in Java is that of absolute monarchy, without any hereditary nobility, and being himself supreme pontiff in religion, he is the most purely despotic of sovereigns, and, in every word that relates to him, the servile copiousness of the Javanese language proclaims his unlimited authority. Yet Ratoo, the genuine native term for a king, in its literal import, means grandfather, which, by a slight inflection, is made to signify a head or chief. In such a state of society there can be no middle class; and accordingly we find that, when Hindooism was prevalent, there did not exist any distinct mercantile class, like the third grand caste of the orthodox Hindoos.

The respect shewn in Java to rank is such, that no individual, whatever be his rank, is permitted to stand in the presence of his superior, or even to reply in the same dialect in which he is addressed. Each delegated authority exacts proportionate deference, and, from the common labourer upwards, no one dares stand in the presence of his superior. The same rule is observed within doors, where an assembly, instead of rising when a great man is announced, sinks to the ground, assuming a posture which can only be expressed by the English word squatting. The practice, however, is submitted to with the utmost cheerfulness by the people, but was in a great measure discontinued during the British government, which, as far as was consistent with prudence, endeavoured to raise the lower orders in their own estimation. A deference still more extravagant is exhibited in the language used to a superior, the vernacular language being rejected, and an arbitrary dialect, named Basa Krama, or the language of honour, substituted: a refinement of humiliation that cannot easily be paralleled, and to a European almost incomprehensible.

The hours of a Javanese prince are mostly passed in the society, or at least in the presence of women. His day is consumed with the most placid apathy in smoking his hookah, while a troop of dancing men and women are supposed to afford him amusement. At other times the females of his seraglio relate the long traditionary stories and adventures of ancient demigods and heroes, contained in their cheritras, or sacred books, which are derived from the mythological fables of the Hindoo Puranas. The heat of the climate has been alleged as an apology for

the indolence of the Javanese: but the fallacy of this position is proved by the industry of the Chinese, who in diligence and perseverance in manual labour surpass many of the most industrious classes in Europe. These inhabit the same island, where they open their variegated shops, and cultivate the fruitful soil, neglected by the natives amidst whom they reside.

The Javanese language is the most copious and improved of all the Eastern archipelago, and is written in a peculiar character, confessedly formed on the principles of the Sanscrit alphabet, but without following its artificial classification. Its copiousness, in fact, arises from its being divided into two dialects, viz. the ordinary language, and another invented to express deference and respect. An inferior addresses a superior in the last-mentioned form of speech, and the latter replies in the ordinary dialect. Indeed, so effectually is the language of inferiority contrasted with that of superiority, that it is quite possible to suppose a case in which a person might be well acquainted with one dialect, without being able to understand a sentence of the other. The Javanese also possess an ancient recondite, and now dead language, named the Kawi, which in its composition abounds with Sanscrit words in a state of great purity. All Kawi compositions are in verse, on the principle of the Sanscrit prosody, and the most important are translations of the Mahabharat and Ramayuna. Genuine Javanese poetry is in a peculiar rhyming stanza, and, like every other species of Javanese literature, is nothing but a chaos of utter inanity, bombast, and puerility. The Arabic language is also taught, and a considerable number of works on law and religion of the orthodox school of Shaffei are circulated through the island. The Sunda is the language of the mountaineers of the western parts of Java, who perhaps occupy one third of the area of the island, but only about one-tenth of its inhabitants. The most ancient inscriptions that have been deciphered from stones and copper-plates, are almost pure Sanscrit, and now no longer intelligible to the Javanese.

The native population of Java, Madura, and Bally use exactly the same written character; but in Bally the Kawi is the language of law and religion, whereas in Java it is now restricted to poetry. The Javanese write from left to right, on paper manufactured by themselves; but in Bally the natives invariably use an iron style, and engrave the letters on prepared palm leaf. In common with other Mahomedans, the Javanese, for above two centuries, have adopted the inconvenient lunar year of the Arabians, but they still retain their own era, and seldom reckon by that of the Hejira. The Javan era is call Aji Saka, which corresponds almost exactly with the Hindoo era of Salivahana, being seventy-four years short of the Christian era; A.D. 1827 corresponding with the Javanese year of 1753. The letters of the alphabet are on the Devanagari principle, but do not follow the same order, which is remarkable, considering it is adhered to in all the numerous alphabets of Sumatra as well as of Celebes.

This people possess the names of the signs of the zodiac, which are nearly pure Sanscrit and still preserve a method of calculating the seasons, the principles of which must have been discovered by persons well acquainted with the motions of the heavenly bodies. They have also some works on judicial astrology, but at present they follow only what is laid down in a few pages of a book almost illegible, and in the old traditions of the country. Indeed the nation appears to have degenerated from some higher condition, as they have totally lost the martial spirit of adventurous enterprize that distinguishes the population of the other isles.

That the Javanese once professed the Hindoo religion in some form is proved by many facts. Besides the corroboration presented by their lan-

guage, there are the relics of Hindooism still adhering to them, the traditions that exist of their ancient belief, and the temples and idols peculiar to the Hindoo superstition, with inscriptions in the sacred language of that faith. The penances and austerities of the Hindoo ritual are still occasionally practised by the Javanese, and their virtue in conferring supernatural power over gods, men, and the elements, still seriously believed in. By all connected with the royal blood, and by them only, the flesh of the cow is religiously abstained from. There is scarcely any reason to believe that the institution of castes (the grand Brahminical distinction) ever prevailed among the Javanese, from which, and from other circumstances, it is probable that the predominant religion of Java was Buddhism; yet the temples and inscriptions found in various parts, furnish sufficient evidence, that the doctrines of Brahma had also obtained a footing.

The remains of numerous small stone temples, collected in groups, and each occupied by a single statue, are found at Brambanan, vaguely termed by the natives the "thousand temples." At Boro Budor is a remarkable solid pyramidical temple, and many ancient Hindoo pagodas of brick are found in the eastern quarter, more especially near to Mojopahit, the last Hindoo capital, destroyed by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1478. The stone temples, in point of materials, solidity, and neatness of execution, are very admirable structures. Genuine Hindoo images, in brass and stone, exist in such variety, that there is hardly a deity of the Hindoo pantheon that has not his representative, more especially Siva, the destroying power, and his family, such as Durga, Ganesa, Surya, the bull Nandi, the Lingam and the Yoni. The most numerous description of images, however, is those of Buddha, the same in all countries professing his doctrines; the legs bent, and the soles of his feet turned up. But these are never seen in the great central temples, but always in the smaller surrounding chapels, *apparently in the character of* votaries worshipping Siva.

To the east of Surabaya, and on the range of hills connected with Gunung Desan, partly in Passaruan and partly in Probolingo, called the Tenggar mountains, a remnant of people called Bedui, following the Hindoo mythology, is still to be found. They occupy about forty villages, scattered among the hills, the houses of which differ in construction and other circumstances from those found elsewhere in Java, but their language, except being strongly guttural, does not differ much. The aggregate population of these sectaries is about 1,200 persons, and the locality of the community singularly beautiful and romantic. The temperature of the air is also remarkably cool, the thermometer being frequently seen so low as 42°, while alpine fruits and plants of a European climate flourish in luxuriance. These Bedui are supposed to be the descendants of the Hindoos that escaped into the woods after the fall of Panjajaran, the western capital in the fifteenth century, who would not alter their religion, but remained faithful to Prabha Seda, the last Hindoo prince of Panjajaran.

The predominant religion is that of Mahomed, adulterated by many superstitious notions and observances, retained from the religion of their ancestors. In A.D. 1406, Sheik ibn Molana, or Ben Israel, an Arabian who had largely contributed to the propagation of Mahomedan faith in the neighbouring islands, came to Java, and became both a powerful sovereign and venerated apostle of that religion. The kings of Bantam and Cheribon claim him for their ancestor, and pilgrimages are still performed to his mosque and mausoleum near the latter, and an edifice that may rank among the most curious and magnificent antiquities of the eastern isles. At present, however, of all the Mahomedans of the Archipelago, the Javanese are the

most lax in principle and practice. According to long-established custom, the evening of the festival commemorating the nativity and death of their prophet is spent by the native princes of Solo and Yugyacarta at the house of the European ambassador, where the strange spectacle is exhibited of a Mussulmaun potentate concluding a sacred religious ceremony by a bacchanalian debauch in the dwelling of a Christian. The chief priests are either Arabs or the descendants of Arabs, but the village priests are mostly Javans, and very numerous, being estimated at 50,000 persons.

Like that of all other nations the early history of the Javanese is lost in fabulous antiquity, but it does not appear that in more modern times any compact well-defined kingdom under one sovereign ever existed. The latter portion of the twelfth century is the earliest period of the Javanese history to which any confident reference can be made, from which time down to the establishment of Mahomedanism at the close of the fifteenth, a considerable number of independent states existed in Java, mostly professing a modified Hindooism, after the doctrines of Buddha. The principal of these states were Doho, Brambanan, Madang, Kamolan, Jangola, Singhasari, Pajajaran, and Mojopahit. Susuhunan, at the introduction of Mahomedanism, meant apostle, but when assumed afterwards by temporal sovereigns, became more correctly expressed by the word caliph.

For about one hundred years after the establishment of the Arabian faith, until the rise of Mataram, the principal states were Demak, Cheribon, Bantam, Jacatra, and Pajang. Madura and the eastern end were independent, and split into many petty communities. Towards the end of the fifteenth century the family of Mataram commenced a successful career of conquest, and during the reigns of four sovereigns subjugated the whole island except Bantam.

The Portuguese reached Java in A.D. 1511, and the Dutch in 1595. These founded Batavia in 1619, and soon afterwards defeated a large army sent against them by the sultan of Mataram, which precipitated the fall of that empire, already tottering from the vices of its chief. In A.D. 1636, Antony Van Diemen, resident at Batavia, was governor-general of the Dutch Indies, after whom Van Diemen's land was named by Tasman the discoverer. From the termination of the Chinese massacre and revolt in 1740, Java may be said to have enjoyed uninterrupted tranquillity from external annoyance until 1811, when it was attacked and conquered by a British army from India under the command of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, but restored again by the treaty of Paris to the Dutch, and taken possession of by them in A.D. 1816, most wonderfully improved in every respect.

In 1823 a treaty was entered into between Great Britain, of which the following were the principal conditions. Both parties to engage that their agents shall not establish new factories on any of the eastern islands, the Moluccas excepted, without permission previously obtained from the respective governments in Europe. All the Dutch settlements on the continent of India to be ceded to Great Britain, including the town and fortress of Malacca, in exchange for Bencoolen and all the British settlements on the island of Sumatra, to be ceded to the king of the Netherlands, the latter renouncing all claim on Singapoor, and Great Britain on the island of Billeton. The cessions to take place on the first of March 1825, during which year an insurrection took place, which so late as 1827 had not been effectually suppressed. (*Raffles, Crawfurd, Stavorinus, Barrow, Marsden, Leyden, &c.*)

JAWNEE.—A town in the province of Candeish, forty miles N.N.E. from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 42′ N., lon. 76° 45′ E.

JAWUD.—A large town in the pro-

vince of Ajmeer, which in 1820 contained 500 houses; lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E.; 1,410 feet above the level of the sea. It is surrounded by a stone wall, and has good gateways, but is of no strength, although the head of a pergunnah of 133 villages belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia. About fifty-eight years ago Jawud was taken from Rana Ulsee of Odeypoor, the grandfather of the ex-Peshwa, who subsequently gave it to Dowlet Row Sindia, from whom it was transferred to his paymaster Jewah Dada, with whom and his descendants it remained until 1818. It was then held by Jeswunt Row Bhow, one of Sindia's principal commanders, who proving refractory, the place was stormed by the army under General Brown, but afterwards restored to Sindia. Near Jawud is a precipice named Sook Deo, from whence persons intent on self-destruction precipitate themselves.—(*Malcolm, Public MS. Doc., &c.*)

JAYIS.—A town in the nabob of Oude's territories, thirty-seven miles N.E. from Manicpoor; lat. 26° 15′ N., lon. 81° 28′ E.

JEEVUN.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, the head of a large pergunnah belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia; lat. 24° 18′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E.

JEEND.—A town and district belonging to the Seik chief Bagga Singh, in the province of Delhi, sixty-seven miles N.W. from the city of Delhi, lat. 30° 10′ N., 76° 5′ E. The town of Jeend is about three-fourths of a mile long and half a mile broad, built of brick, surrounded by a wall, but without a ditch. On the north and within the town is an old brick fort of no great strength. The district of Jeend is much covered with wood, being the north-western portion of the great jungle, commencing in the Sonput pergunnah. The land is low and apparently fertile; but it is at present under a very defective system of cultivation.—(*Lieut. White, &c.*)

JEGHIDERPOOR (*Jaghirdarpur*).—A town in the province of Orissa, twenty miles south from Bustar, lat. 19° 11′ N., lon. 82° 28′ E. Under this town a considerable river runs, named the Inderowty (Indravati), the bed of which is rocky, and not fordable at any time of the year. There is a small fort on a peninsula formed by the winding of the river, which in the rainy season overflows its banks, and forms a lake of considerable size.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

JEHANABAD.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, thirty-three miles S. by W. from Patna; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 85° 5′ E.

JEITPUR (*Jetpur*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-two miles N.N.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 25° 17′ N., lon. 79° 32′ E. In 1824, owing to the refractory conduct of the ranny of this place, during the minority of her son, it became necessary to coerce and restrain her baneful interference with the affairs of the government.

JE[illegible].—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles N.N.E. from Ludeeana; lat. 31° 2′ N., lon. 76° 11′ E.

JEJURRY.—A Maharatta town of considerable sanctity in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-five miles S.E. from Poonah; lat. 18° 16′ N., lon. 74° 19′ E. The temple at this place is dedicated to an incarnation of Siva, under the form of Kandeh Row, which he assumed for the purpose of destroying an enormous giant named M[illegible]. It is built of fine stone, is situated on a high hill in a beautiful country, and has a very majestic appearance. Two flights of steps have been constructed from the base of the hill to the summit. That on the north side is the most pleasant, and is ornamented with sixty stone arches thrown across at intervals, and flanked by cones covered with little projecting brackets, for the reception of lights on occasion of illumination.

Attached to the temple is an esta-

blishment of dancing girls, who in 1792 amounted to 250 in number, with many Brahmins, and beggars innumerable. The establishment has ample funds, of which about £6,000 pounds are annually expended on the idol, who has horses and elephants kept for his recreation, and with his inanimate spouse is daily bathed in rose and Ganges water, the latter brought the distance of above 1,000 miles. They are also perfumed with otr of roses and decorated with gems. The revenues accrue from houses and lands bestowed by pious persons, and from offerings presented by votaries of all descriptions.

Jejurry is a favourite spot among the Maharattas for performing the ceremony of swinging, which is, however, much less practised in this part of India than in Bengal. On these occasions the penitent, to expiate his sins, has a blunt hook thrust into the fleshy part of his back below the shoulder blades, after which he is hoisted up to the top of a pole, from twenty to fifty feet high, and from thence swung round hanging to a tranverse beam, until the object is supposed to be accomplished.—(*Moor, Fullarton, &c.*)

Jelalabad.—A walled town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, forty-six miles south by west from the town of Bareily; lat. 27° 45′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E.

Jelalabad.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Etaweh, twenty-three miles south by east from Furruckabad.

Jelalabad.—A town in the province of Delhi, 26′ S. by W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 36′ N., lon. 77° 26′ E.

Jelalabad.—A town in Afghanistan, formerly of great note, but now much decayed, although still of considerable strength and importance. It has a considerable market-place, and the adjacent district produces a coarse sugar; lat. 34° 6′ N., lon. 69° 46′ E.

Jelalpoor.—A village in the province of Allahabad, district of Juanpoor, eleven miles S.S.E., from the town of that name. Near this place there is a massy bridge of nine arches over the river Sye.

Jelalpoor.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the north bank of the Jhylum or Hydaspes, which in the month of July 1809 was found to be 1,800 yards broad with a depth of fourteen feet water. The two banks here present a striking contrast; the left having all the characteristics of the Gangetic plain, being flat and rich like Bengal, while the right bank is formed by the end of the great salt range of hills, seen at Calabaugh on the Indus, and presents an extremely rugged and barren aspect. These mountains retain here the red colour for which they are remarkable, and approach the edge of the river, which, being divided by islands, agrees exactly with the description of the ancients, particularly Quintus Curtius's delineation of the field of battle with Porus.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Jelalpoor.—A town in the province of Agra, situated in the midst of ravines on the south side of the Betwa river, nineteen miles S. from Kalpee; lat. 25° 51′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E. The houses here are chiefly of brick, and adapted for defence, being pierced with loop-holes for musquetry.

Jelload.—A large village in the province of Candeish, the capital of a pergunnah belonging to the British government, situated on the south bank of the Tuptee. The banks of the river are high in this vicinity, the channel deep, and the stream abounds with fish; lat. 21° 9′ N., lon. 75° 12′ E., seventy miles W.S.W. from Boorhanpoor.

Jelpesh.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, sixty miles N.N.W. from the town of Rungpoor; lat. 25° 28′ N., lon. 88° 45′ E. At this place there is a noted temple erected by the Rajas of Cooch Bahar in honour of the god Siva, from whom the Cooch Bahar and By-

kantpoor families are said to be lineally descended.—(*Sisson, &c.*)

Jelpigory.—A small town (formerly fortified) in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, sixty-five miles N.N.W. from Rungpoor town; lat. 26° 30′ N., lon. 88° 25′ E.

Jelpy Aumnair.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated at the confluence of the Tuptee and Gurgah rivers, being washed on two sides by their waters; lat. 21° 27′ N., lon. 76° 54′ E. A few scattered houses, called the pottah, are near the Tuptee, and about 200 yards from the south-east angle of the fort, on the margin of the Gurgah, there is a Mahomedan mausoleum. It was evacuated to the British troops in 1819, after the batteries were opened.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

Jemaulabad.—A town in the province of Canara, originally named Narsinga Angady; lat. 13° 3′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E. The fort built here by Tippoo stands on an immense rock, which is wholly inaccessible except by one narrow path, and may be deemed impregnable. The nature of the access to it renders the descent in the face of an enemy nearly as difficult as the ascent; so that a very small body of men with artillery are adequate to blockade a strong garrison, which renders the place of little use except as a safeguard for treasure. When Seringapatam had fallen Tippoo's garrison was summoned, but held out for six weeks; when, after three days' bombardment, the soldiers ran off, the commandant poisoned himself, and the principal officers who submitted to be taken, were hanged.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Jemlah (*Yumila*).—An extensive country in Northern Hindostan, situated to the north of Jajarcote, and now subject to the Nepaulese. According to the account given by an intelligent native, after passing the hilly boundary that separates it from Jajarcote, a fine valley, cut by deep ravines, is entered, said to extend twenty miles from east to west, and ten from north to south, in many respects resembling that of Nepaul, but more chequered with low hills. It is said to be well cultivated, producing wheat, barley, pease, lentils, and maize; but too cold for the sugar-cane. Besides the plain in which Chinachin is built, the Jemlah rajas held a great extent of narrow vallies and mountains, many of the latter covered with perpetual snow. One of the most important products of Jemlah is salt, said to be procured at a place named Muckhola, reckoned from ninety to 100 miles road distance from Chinachin towards the north-east. The natives report, that at Mukhola there is a large space containing many pools. which in winter are covered with snow, and in summer with a saline incrustation: but this does not appear probable. According to the same authority, one-fourth of the inhabitants are Brahmins, Rajpoots, and Khasiyas, who follow the Brahminical doctrines; but the Bhooteas are the most numerous, and along with the Gurungs, Rohanies, Khaties, and Rahals (all impure tribes) make up the remaining three-fourths, who mostly adhere to the Lamas. The language spoken at court is the Khas, but the dialect varies so much from that of Palpa and Gorkha that even the titles of the chief government officers are different, although regulated by similar forms of administration. The principal town in the valley is Chinachin, and there are others scattered over the great space that formerly composed the Jemlah principality; but, owing to the extreme jealousy of the Gorkhas, scarcely any thing is known regarding the interior. Jemlah was conquered by Run Bahadur, the regent of Nepaul.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Jenjapoor.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, eighty miles N.E. from Patna; lat. 26° 14′ N., lon. 86° 20′ E.

Jeor.—A well-built and beautiful village in the mountainous country of Bejapoor, situated within the do-

minions of the Satara Raja, fourteen miles N. by E. from the town of Satara. At this place there is a small zemindar's fort, and a Hindoo temple of an ancient style of architecture. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

JESSELMERE (*Jesalmer*).—A large division of Rajpootana, situated between the twenty-sixth and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and nearly surrounded by the great desert of which it may almost be described as an integral portion, so barren and unproductive is the soil, owing to a deficiency of moisture. It forms the extreme boundary of the inhabited country towards the west; towards the east it comes in contact with the district of Marwar and dominions of Joudpour. Owing to the great sterility of this region, it has hitherto attracted little attention, and remains almost wholly unknown. The greater part of the surface presents to the view an uninterrupted tract of sand, intersected by no stream, the scanty supply of water being only procurable from wells of a vast depth under ground. Being, however, within the influence of the periodical rains, its desert condition must in some degree be attributed to the nature of the government, consisting of many turbulent petty chiefs, with the Raja of Jesselmere for a nominal superior. It is consequently but little cultivated and thinly inhabited, mostly by a Rajpoot tribe of Bhatties; but the Jesselmere chief is said to be of the Joudpoor family. At present Jesselmere is the principal, and almost only town; but Lodarwa is said to have been the ancient capital.

According to tradition the Rajas of Jesselmere are descended from the fourth of the Jadoos, surnamed Bhatti, and preserved by the care of the goddess Bhavani Hinglais, after the destruction of his brethren. Their history since then until 1808, an interval of 5,000 years, stands wholly unrecorded. In that year the raja of Jesselmere applied to Mr. Seton, the British resident at Delhi, representing the strong desire he felt to visit the sacred banks of the Ganges for devotional purposes, provided he received the permission of the British government, and assurances of respectful treatment; for it appears he had received a very erroneous impression of the British, both individually and as a nation. He was, in reply, encouraged to proceed on his pilgrimage without apprehension, and his confidence being thus increased, he adverted to his political situation, stating, that many chiefs had by fraud and violence obtained fragments of the Mogul empire, which they ruled with an iron hand, while he and his ancestors had remained at rest from the remotest antiquity within the limits of their own dominions; but that even these were now endangered, such encroachments being daily made on his hereditary possessions, as threatened utterly to annihilate his principality. He therefore appealed to the British nation, as sovereigns of Hindostan, to whose protection he was entitled, and entreated them to save for him the remaining portion of his country, the natural barrenness and seclusion of which was not sufficient to preserve it from molestation. To this request a concilitary answer was sent with some presents, but the raja was informed that consistently with the principles that regulated the conduct of the British government, all interference with his political concerns must be declined; but he would experience every office of friendship due to a friendly neighbour, and the utmost hospitality during his contemplated pilgrimage. Affairs continued in this state until A.D. 1818, when the Jesselmere raja was admitted into the British protective alliance, on the same terms as had previously been granted to the raja of Bicanere.—(*Public MS. Documents, Metcalfe, &c.*)

JESSELMERE.—The capital of the preceding principality, stands nearly in the centre of the Ajmeer province, about 165 miles due east from the Indus; lat. 26° 43′ N., lon. 70° 54′

E. The great earthquake of June 1819, which overthrew Bhooj, and caused such destruction in the province of Cutch, was severely felt even in this distant quarter. In the approach to this place from Joudpoor, during the hot season, there are three stages destitute of water.

JESSORE (*Jasar, the bridge*).—A district in the southern quarter of Bengal, situated principally between the 22d and 23d degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the great Ganges; to the south by the sea, on the west it has Nuddea and Hooghly; and on the east Dacca Jelalpoor and Backergunge. In 1814 the total area was estimated at 5,000 square miles.

The southern portion of this district is in the Sunderbunds, and composed of salt marshy islands, formed by the alluvion and successive changes of the channels of the Ganges, and covered with wood. Some parts lie so low that bunds, or embankments are necessary to protect them from inundation, the expense for repairing which, in 1815, amounted to 18,000 rupees. The land is notwithstanding very fertile, and were it adequately peopled and cultivated, might be made to produce inexhaustible supplies of rice, for which the soil and climate are peculiarly adapted. Even now, a large proportion of the southern tract, although so close to Calcutta, remains in a state of nature, covered with jungle, and only frequented by salt-makers and river pirates, the latter continuing, but in a less degree, to infest the numberless branches of the Ganges by which the district is intersected. As may be inferred from such circumstances, the bridges are few and the roads bad; the best being that from Calcutta to Dacca, kept in repair by the government convicts. Permanent edifices are rare, and mostly of Hindoo origin; and no fortresses are to be found either of brick or mud.

Since the decennial settlement cultivation has certainly been considerably extended, probably to the amount of one-sixteenth of the original quantity, and many unauthorized encroachments have been made by the adjacent zemindars on the government lands in the Sunderbunds. The uncultivated and fallow land, excluding the Sunderbunds, was estimated in 1802 to bear the proportion of one-eighth to the cultivated, and the jungle or waste land, permanently uncultivated, at one-sixteenth of the whole; but these proportions are not likely to be accurate. The most valuable article of produce are rice, salt, indigo (of an excellent quality), tobacco, ganja, mulberry, pawn, betel-nut, and long pepper. Of these, salt is monopolized as a source of revenue, and mulberry-trees only raised with a view to the silk investment; but the indigo cultivation is greatly on the increase.

In 1801, by the directions of the Marquis Wellesley, then governor-general, the board of revenue in Bengal circulated various queries to the judges and collectors of the different districts on statistical subjects. The result of their replies tended to establish the fact that the Jessore collectorate contained 1,200,000 inhabitants, in the proportion of nine Mahomedans to seven Hindoos. The Jessore zemindary was originally in the revenue books named Yusefpoor, and was conferred early in the eighteenth century, by Jaffier Khan, on Kishenram, a khaist of Orissa. The principal towns are Jessore or Moorley, Culna, and Mahmudpoor, all insignificant.—(*J. Grant, W. Parker, J. Shakespear, &c.*)

JESSORE TOWN.—See MOORLEY.

JETRA.—A fortified town in the western quarter of the Gujerat province, about twenty-four miles E. from Theraud. In 1809 this was a place of some strength, and its chief could muster 700 men, with whom he levied contributions in the Theraud pergunnah.

JEYSINGNUGGUR.—A small town belonging to the British government

in the province of Malwa, district of Saugur, eighteen miles S.W. by S. from Saugur city; lat. 23° 36′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E.

JEYPOOR (*Jayapura*), OR JYENAGUR (*Jayanagara*).—A Rajpoot principality in the provinces of Ajmeer and Agra, situated principally between the twenty-sixth and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of the Macherry Raja and Shekawutty; on the south by Kerowly, Tonk, Boondee, and other petty states; to the east it has the Macherry and Bhurtpoor territories; and on the west by the British district of Ajmeer, and the dominions of Joudpoor. The great space which lies to the north of Harrowty and Mewar is properly termed Doondar, afterwards changed to Amber, and now designated Jeypoor.

The eastern, north-eastern, southern, and south-western tracts produce wheat, cotton, and tobacco, and whatever is common to other arid parts of India; but in general fields are watered from wells, the streams being few, and of but temporary duration. The soil is in general sandy, much impregnated with salt, which is manufactured and exported. Notwithstanding its aridity and excessive heat, the climate is said to be healthy, although the hot winds blowing over such an extent of parched surface must be distressing both to man and beast. From the beginning of February to that of July, a strong gale of wind blows without cessation, raising whirlwinds of burning sand, which obscures the sun, and from which the traveller cannot escape within or without doors.

In addition to these natural evils, so severely had this principality suffered from the ravages of Meer Khan and other plunderers, that, with the single exception of the little division of Lalsoont, the Jeypoor country in 1819 presented little else than an extensive waste. For miles in every direction the eye ranged over plains that bore marks of former cultivation, but now overspread with short coarse grass and brier bushes, relieved at intervals by a tract of babool and dukh jungle. Vast herds of deer were seen roving about with a freedom that proved how completely and for how long a period the fields had been abandoned to them; while sarusses, wild peacocks, and other descriptions of game had multiplied prodigiously, as might be expected in a country where they are protected from harm by religious prejudice. The villages and towns stood at a great distance from each other, and were all fortified, and the general aspect of the country presented an apparent desolation and sterility approaching to that of desert; yet, judging from the immense contributions extorted for so many years by different hordes of depredators, the soil must at some time have been eminently productive.

The Jeypoor raja possesses within his limits Sambher and some other salt-lakes, from whence, at one period, all Upper Hindostan was supplied with that condiment, which, however, to a European has rather a more acrid bitterish taste than the muriate of soda procured from sea-water. In most parts there are good cattle both for draught and the shambles, but not equal in quality to those of Joudpoor: sheep are also reared in some parts for the sake of the wool. In some towns cloth, swords, and matchlocks are manufactured; but for many years, owing to the unceasing ravages, the external commerce of Jeypoor has been quite insignificant. The imports are fine cloth, tissue, Benares manufactures, and Cashmere shawls. From Gujerat and Tatta, opium, lead, and sheet-copper are supplied, from Persia and Cabul, fruit and horses. The caravans from the latter formerly passed through Bicaneer, but more recently they have taken the route of Jesselmere.

In the southern portion of the Jeypoor territories the cultivators are named Meenas, who pretend to be

of the Khetri caste; but are not acknowledged by the Rajpoots, who think it derogatory to exercise any other profession than that of arms, on which account they employ Meenas to cultivate the farms they rent. In the petty states of Kotah and Boondee, this tribe (which abounds also in Marwar and other parts of Rajpootana) inhabit the hills and jungles, and devote themselves exclusively to thieving; they also eat meat, and drink ardent spirits without scruple. In other quarters of Jeypoor the great mass of cultivators are Jauts, who are held by the Rajpoots in the strictest obedience. Many of the latter follow the practice, so general among the military class in other parts of India, of occasionally putting their female children to death. The religious sect of the Jain prevails in the Jeypoor territory to much greater extent than in any other country in Upper Hindostan, and if any inference may be drawn from the appearance of their temples, which are every where in excellent repair, and frequently of recent construction, they must be a prosperous and increasing community.

The Jeypoor territory is now compact, and compared with the other quarters of Rajpootana, notwithstanding its defects, populous. It also contains some of the strongest fortresses in Hindostan, and deemed by the natives impregnable, more especially that which defends the capital and Rantampoor, which, however, have not yet stood the test of European tactics. Besides these, there are a great many small forts or ghurries scattered over the country, and most of the villages are fortified with walls and ditches. Many of these strong-holds are built on the tops or slopes of hills, covering the towns at their bases; and although faulty as a defensive arrangement, have an imposing effect when viewed at a distance. The hills, on the other hand, are too low for grandeur, and too destitute of verdure to be pleasing. In 1805 the revenues of Jeypoor were estimated at sixty lacks of rupees; the military force at 8,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry, besides numerous irregular adherents. In 1819 the coin at the Jeypoor mint was still struck in the name of the Mogul. The subordinate Rajpoot chiefs for the most part hold their lands on the feudal system of tenure, over which the raja, if a weak man, has little power of coercion. The durbar or court held in the capital has long been noted for its pride, splendour, and formality. In the Lord's Prayer, as given in the Jeypoor language, twenty-nine of the words can be traced as being the same as in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

The tribe of Rajpoots to which the Jeypoor family belong is named the Kutchwa, and is of the Suryabansi, or Children of the Sun-line, being descended from Rama, the famous conqueror, by his second son named Cush. From the latter the Jeypoor chronologers reckon 210 rajas in succession to Pirthi Raj, who ascended the throne in A.D. 1502.

The late raja Juggeth Singh, a weak and cruel prince, succeeded his father Pertaub Singh in 1803. The latter had possessed himself of the government on the death of his elder brother, to the exclusion of that brother's son Maun Singh, the legitimate heir. In 1805 Maun Singh was at Gualior with Sindia, ready to make an attempt on the throne when circumstances suited. During the British contests with Sindia and Holcar, it was the policy of the Jeypoor court to keep on good terms with all parties while the struggle was doubtful, and to side with the strongest when the success was complete. While Holcar had a transitory prosperity, the Jeypoor raja collected a force to assist him, which, after his complete discomfiture by Lord Lake, was destined to co-operate with the British army; but on a report of a general confederacy of the Maharattas, and of Sindia's advance from the southward, it was countermanded. This feeble policy was at that time practised by all the Rajpoot states,

with a view to their own preservation.

During this campaign the adversaries of the British government made use of arguments addressed to the religious prejudices of the Hindoos, and the inexpiable crimes of beef-eating and peacock and pigeon shooting were sounded against the British character through every court in Hindostan. The commander-in-chief (Lord Lake) in consequence issued a proclamation, prohibiting the slaughter of any of the cow species in the vicinity of Mathura, Bindrabund, and other holy places, which had the most beneficial effect in tranquillizing the minds of the Hindoos. As by the tergiversation of his conduct, the Jeypoor raja had managed to get himself excluded from the pale of British protection, he was left to his own resources, which being inadequate to the defence of his dominions, they endured the most merciless ravages, aggravated by an unceasing war of factions at court, and frequent change of ministers. But, notwithstanding the misery of its condition, this state in 1818 was the last to send negociators to Delhi, and was ultimately the most difficult to settle with. At length, after much indecision, evasion, and procrastination, a treaty was signed on the 2d April 1818: when the contribution for the first year was fixed at four lacks; the second, five; the third, six; the fourth, seven; and eight lacks of rupees ever after, besides five-sixteenths for ever on any excess in revenue beyond forty lacks of rupees per annum.

The Jeypoor territory is large, and under proper management may be expected to yield eighty lacks of rupees per annum; but to restore order after all external enemies had been subdued, proved a task of no small difficulty, not a little aggravated by the folly of the raja and profligacy of his favourites. When the Jeypoor court was visited in 1818 by Sir David Ochterlony, three menial servants, one a eunuch, were presented to him by the raja, as the members of his cabinet, and the conductors of all affairs, foreign and domestic. A convention of the principal thakoors (or feudal chiefs) was attempted, but many, presuming on the strength of their fortresses, opposed the arrangement, in consequence of which it became necessary to reduce Khooshalghur and Madharujpoor. Juggeth Singh died in December 1818, when the succession was disputed by Maun Singh, a posthumous, and it was alleged spurious son of the late raja's uncle, and a distant branch of the Marwar branch hastily placed on the throne by Mahar Ram, the eunuch above-mentioned. It does not appear how this matter was arranged; but in 1824 a minor raja sat on the Jeypoor throne under the guardianship of a regent ranny. — (*Broughton, Metcalfe, Fullarton, Prinsep, G. Thomas, Rennell, Hunter, &c.*)

Jeypoor (*Jayapura*).—A city of Rajpootana, the capital of the preceding principality, about 150 miles S.S.W. from Delhi, and eighty-two miles N.N.E. from the cantonments at Nusseerabad, near Ajmeer; lat. 26° 55′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E. It is situated in an irregular valley, among steep hills which encompass the city on the north, east, and west, opening only towards the south, where the country presents an open plain. It is surrounded by a wall of grey-stone, kept in good repair, and commanded by a citadel, built on the margin of a cliff above towards the west. Another detached fort stands on a conspicuous eminence in the direction of Sanganeer towards the south-east, and connecting a line of fortification which extends along the whole range of heights. In length it has been estimated at three miles by about half that space in breadth; and is probably well calculated for resistance against native armies, as it has withstood many a siege and baffled the besiegers.

Jeypoor is, beyond all question, the handsomest and most regularly built town of Hindostan; and the four great streets, which diverge at right angles from the great central

square, would bear a comparison with most streets, European or Asiatic, in point of width and architectural effect. The houses are generally three and four stories high, built of stone and covered with a fine stucco, which rivals the lustre of marble. Many of the façades are decorated with paintings in fresco, and porticoes, sculptures, and other works of marble are seen on all sides. The most striking feature, however, of Jeypoor, is the projecting stone balconies, enclosed with wrought lattices of the same material, or with screens of stone painted to resemble lattice-work, which embellish the front of the houses, and produce an agreeably light and picturesque effect. The buildings of the palace, with its court-yards, its triple succession of gardens, terrace below terrace, and its noble sheets of water occupy nearly an entire quarter of the city. Besides the public apartments, and the accommodation for the raja, and the individuals of his family, it contains within its precincts a mint, an observatory, a great stud of fighting elephants, and other appendages of eastern royalty.

The principal front of the palace looks into the great square, is exceedingly lofty, and of very whimsical architecture, radiating in the form of a peacock's tail, with windows of party-coloured glass to imitate the eyes. There are likewise other glass windows in this palace, and in that at the ghaut four miles from the city. The introduction of this luxury, probably first at Ambher, and (not to be found in any other native town) is referred back to as old a date as the flourishing period of the Venetian commerce, and the small supply of glass panes, still required for the consumption of Jeypoor, is said to come even at the present day from the Mediterranean by the way of Surat. Connected with the palace is the chowk or principal bazar, a magnificent range of buildings forming the best part of the main street, which opens from the square to the westward. The temples of Jeypoor are numerous, and like the city itself of modern construction; but they are, nevertheless, built in the purest Hindoo style, and some of them of larger dimensions than are to be found in any other city of Upper Hindostan.

Jeypoor is of modern date, having been planned and built for raja Jeysingh in the reign of Mahomed Shah, (it is said) by an Italian, which accounts for its superior architectural regularity. The prior metropolis was the city of Amber, distant about four miles. At that period this city was the principal, indeed almost the only seat of science in Hindostan, Raja Jeysing being a great encourager of learning, and the founder of several observatories for astronomical purposes. In 1779 Colonel Polier procured here the first complete copy of the Vedas, which he afterwards presented to the British Museum. With respect to its population nothing certain can be affirmed, as admission has but recently been granted to Europeans. One traveller asserts that the houses are built at a distance from each other, and connected by a screen-wall, which gives the streets an appearance of symmetry, and the city of population, to which they are not strictly entitled. In 1819 the country immediately around Jeypoor exhibited the extreme of poverty and desolation, but it has since greatly recovered from the devastation it had so long experienced. A stranger visiting Jeypoor is surprised at the prodigious flocks of pigeons, which are not only seen flying about in every direction, but sometimes alight in the street in such numbers as almost to obstruct his passage. Like the peacock, they are held sacred throughout Rajpootana, and are so tame and familiar that it is difficult to drive them away.

In A.D. 1798, after the treacherous massacre of Mr. Cherry and other English gentlemen at Benares, Vizier Ali, the perpetrator, fled to Jeypoor, intending eventually to seek refuge with the sovereign of Cabul. The Marquis Wellesley being anxious to bring the assassin to punishment, despatched Colonel Collins as embassa-

dor to Pertaub Singh, to procure his being given up; to accomplish which purpose he authorized him to expend to the amount of three lacks of rupees. A long negociation ensued, in the course of which the raja expressed great zeal or affected reluctance to infringe the rights of hospitality, even towards so execrable a villain; but the spirited remonstrances of the ambassador, backed by the seasonable distribution of the money among the raja's ministry, effected his capture, under the stipulations that he should neither be put to death nor confined in chains. He was in consequence imprisoned in a species of cage, open on two sides, constructed in one of the bomb proofs under the ramparts of Fort William, where he remained until death released him in 1817. In 1819 his place was supplied by another assassin, the noted Trimbuckjee Dainglia.

During the campaign of 1817 this city was closely approached by the army commanded by Sir David Ochterlony, but no European was allowed to enter the gates; but since 1819 all restrictions have been removed. In 1824 some of the regent ranny's mutinous battalions suddenly occupied Jeypoor, but afterwards, through fear of the British, withdrew to their respective stations in the interior. Towards the conclusion of 1826 the ranny was invested with the administration of affairs during the minority of her son, associate with an experienced minister to secure the British share of the revenues, manage the pecuniary affairs of the state, and prevent misappropriation. Raol Barisol was restored to his office, and in conjunction with Thakoor Megh Singh, entrusted with the management of the money transactions, so that after much agitation, the affairs of this state were subsiding into something that resembled tranquillity. Travelling distance from Agra 136 miles; from Delhi 156; from Oojein 285; from Bombay 740; and from Calcutta 975 miles. — (*Fullarton, Hunter, Public MS. Documents, Broughton, &c.*)

JEYPOOR GHAUT.—A remarkable defile in the province of Ajmeer, winding through the hills to the westward of the city of Jeypoor, from which it is distant about four miles, and emphatically named the Ghaut. This deep, dreary, and arid passage, encumbered with huge accumulations of sand, was whimsically chosen by a former rana of Jeypoor for the site of a palace, and a traveller approaching that city from Tonghа, is surprised, during his progress through this dismal wilderness, by coming suddenly on a creation of terraced gardens, pavilions, Hindoo temples, baths, reservoirs, and fountains, extending for a long distance up this gloomy pass, and all shining in the freshest colours, and maintained in the highest order. Among the other religious edifices found here is a temple dedicated to Parsonauth (Parswanatha) and the twenty-four deified Jain saints; the images and decorations of the whole being of marble, jasper, and other costly materials.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

JHALAWAR.—A district in the Gujerat province, where it occupies the north-eastern portion of the peninsula, extending along the gulf of Cutch and the Runn, between the twenty-second and twenty-third degrees of north latitude. The face of the country is level, and, except in the neighbourhood of villages, destitute of wood. The chief grain produce is wheat, of which a considerable quantity is exported to the different markets in Gujerat. Cotton is also an important export, either directly to Cutch, or by the routes of Dollerah, Gogo, and Bhownuggur. The Rajpoots here are divided into three classes: the Jeenamas, the Kuraria, and the Naroda. The first are respectable, and addressed with the title of Jee; the second have resigned some part of their militery rank, and perform menial offices; the last have wholly relinquished the military profession, till the land, and are now degraded to the rank of Koonbees or cultivators. The prin-

cipal towns are Durrangdra, Wudwan, Limree, Hulwud, Wankaneer, and Moreyee. Jhalawer had long been under nominal subjection to the Guicowar; but he derived little revenue from the territory until 1807, when, by the able measures pursued by Colonel Walker, the Jhalawar chieftains were induced to pay a fixed tribute in perpetuity of 2,95,574 rupees annually.—(*Walker, Macmurdo, &c.*)

JHALLODE.—A town in the Gujerat province, situated on the Muchun river, fifty-five miles N. by E. from Chumpaneer; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 74° 14′ E.

JHALLORE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Joudpoor, and in 1821 one of the principal stations belonging to that government.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

JHANSI.—The capital of a petty Bundela state in the province of Allahabad, within the line of British protection, and under the superintendence of the Bundelcund magistrate; lat. 25° 32′ N., lon. 78° 34′ E., eighty-two miles N.N.W. from Chatterpoor. In 1790, when visited by Dr. William Hunter, this was a considerable town, but commanded by a stone fort on a high hill, to the south-east of which, at the distance of 500 yards, is another hill, nearly on a level with the fort. At that date Jhansi was a considerable thoroughfare for the traffic between the Deccan, Furruckabad, and the cities in the Doab, and contained a manufactory of bows, arrows, and spears, then the principal weapons of the Bundela tribes. At present a carpet manufactory is carried on to some extent.

This little principality emanated from Oorcha, the parent state, and is but of recent formation; yet, from a concurrence of fortunate circumstances, has survived many others of greater antiquity. About A.D. 1743 the reigning Peshwa took possession of one-half of the lands of the Teary (or Tehree) Raja, and half of those belonging to Dittcah. Half of the last and the whole of the first portion composed the small soubahdary of Jhansi, held under the authority of the Peshwa, whose rights in 1818 devolved to the British government.—(*Hunter, Treaties, Richardson, Franklin, &c.*)

JHANSU-JEANG.—A fortified rock in Tibet, which, from its perpendicular height, and the irregularity of its cliffs, appears impregnable; lat. 28°40′ N., lon. 89° 31′ E., thirty-seven miles S.E. from Teshoo Loomboo. The valley of Jhansu is very extensive, and has greatly the appearance of having been once under water, the bed of a lake. It is populous and well cultivated, and particularly noted for the manufacture of woollens of two colours, garnet and white, which seldom exceed half a yard in breadth. They are close woven, and thick like frieze, and are very soft to the touch, the fleece of the sheep being remarkably fine.—(*Capt. Turner, &c.*)

JHARRAH.—A town in the province of Cutch, fifty-three miles N.W. from Bhooj; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 69° 9′ E.

JHINAYI RIVER.—A branch of the Brahmaputra river, which strikes off about ten miles below Dewangunge, and after traversing the Mymunsingh district in Bengal, unites with another branch named the Ronayi, after which their united waters are discharged into the Nattore Jeels. Some years ago the current of the Brahmaputra set very strongly down the channel of the Jhinayi, and even since a portion of its floods has taken that direction, the result of which has been a sudden and most extraordinary enlargement of the bed of the Jhinayi, which, although rivalling its parent river in breadth, makes a most insignificant figure in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

JHINJANA.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-five miles N.W. from Paniput; lat. 29° 30′ N., lon. 77° 14′ E.

JHONKUR.—A town in the province

of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 500 houses. It is the cusbah, or head town, of a small pergunnah belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, and stands about twenty-eight miles E. by N. from Oojein; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 76° 15′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

JHOONJOONA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Shekawutty, 112 miles W.S.W. from Delhi; lat. 28° 2′ N., lon. 75° 22′ E. This is a handsome town, ornamented with some trees and gardens, which make a pleasing appearance, contrasted with the desert by which they are surrounded. It belongs to an independent raja of the Shekawutty tribe.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

JHURJHOORY (*Jharajhari, the bamboo grove*).—A wretched village in the Nepaulese territories, district of Muckwanpoor, consisting of a few herdsmen's huts scattered along the banks of the Bukkia river; lat. 27° 3′ N., lon. 85° 4′ E. To the south of this place lies the great Jurjhoory forest, which abounds with elephants of a bad quality, and contains much valuable saul timber.—(*Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

JHURREE.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul river, and seventy-five miles W. by N. from Jhansi; lat. 25° 33′ N., lon. 7° 24′ E.

JHYLUM RIVER (*the Hydaspes of the Greeks*).—This river has its source in the south-eastern corner of the Cashmere valley, is there named the Behut, and proceeding almost due west, passes the capital, where it is joined by a small stream from the Dhur lake. Twelve miles below Cashmere city it is joined by the [illegible], and by many smaller rivers during its course through the [illegible] valleys, which it enters at [illegible], and four miles below [illegible] it receives the Kishen-[illegible] coming from the northward. [illegible] far its course is nearly due [illegible], but from hence it curves to the [illegible], and near the town of Jhylum (lat. 32° 3′ N.) is little known, the country being so mountainous that it is little frequented by travellers. During its progress through the hills the Jhylum is rapid, and from 100 to 600 yards broad, but it is not fordable at any season, although men and horses have only fifteen to twenty yards to swim. After a course of 450 miles it joins the Chinaub at Tremmoo ghaut, twenty miles below Jhung, and 100 above Mooltan, and after their conflux ceases to have a distinct name.

Fifty miles lower down these united streams receive the Ravey, near Fazel Shah and Ahmedpoor, and flow on, passing the city of Mooltan about four miles and a half to the north, the combined streams retaining the name of Chinaub to within eight miles of Ooch, at Sheenee-bukree, where they are joined by the Gurrah, or united waters of the Beyah and Sutuleje, 115 miles, including windings, below Mooltan, and sixty below Bahawulpoor. From this place to Mittenda Kot, where they fall into the Indus, a distance of ninety miles, these five rivers, now forming one, take the name of the Punjnud, and for the above distance run nearly parallel to their ultimate reservoir, the Indus, the distance across rarely exceeding ten miles; indeed, during the rains the last-mentioned is one entire sheet of water.

This river, the most westerly of the Punjab streams, is by Abul Fazel named the Behut or Bedusta, in ancient Hindoo mythological poems the Indrani, and is the famous Hydaspes of Alexander. It is reckoned the second largest of the Punjab rivers, its breadth at Jellalpoor (32° 40′ N.) in the month of August being 1,800 yards, with a depth of fourteen feet; and the extreme length of its course, from its origin to its junction with the Indus, about 750 miles, including windings.—(*Macartney, Rennell, &c.*)

JIGA GOONGHAR.—The second capital of Eastern Tibet, situated, according to report, on the south bank of the Sanpoo River, fifty miles S.W.

from Lassa; lat. 30° N., lon. 91° 30′ E.

JIGNI.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, twenty-six miles S. by E. from Jaloun; lat. 25° 44′ N., lon. 79° 21′ E.

JILFY AUMNAIR.—A fortress in the province of Gundwana, situated on the south bank of the Tuptee, on the high road between the Deopahar hills and Aseerghur; lat. 21° 28′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E., forty-two miles E. by N. from Boorhanpoor.

JINHUT DOABEH.—A natural subdivision of the Lahore province, concerning which little is known, except that it is bounded on the east by the Chinaub or Acesines, and on the west by the Jhylum or Hydaspes; the oblique distance from Jelalpoor ghaut across the Doab to Vizierabad being about forty-four miles. Throughout its whole extent the surface is level and the soil good; but the country is thinly inhabited, and the land mostly under pasturage. It contains no town of note, and, like the rest of the Punjab, is at present under the domination of the Seiks.

JIOMEE.—A large village in Ajmeer, division of Harrowty, and pergunnah of Sukaid, which in 1820 contained 800 inhabitants.

JOANA.—A town in the island of Java, fifty miles east from Samarang; lat. 6° 42′ S., lon. 111° 8′ E. The fort and town are situated a few miles from the sea-coast, on a fine river with a rapid current, but navigable for vessels of considerable burthen. It is crossed on a floating raft or bridge fixed on boats. The fort is in good repair, and the town contains several European families. Under the British system in 1814, the territorial revenue of Japara and Joana was estimated at 3,42,902 rupees.—(*Thorn, Stavorinus, &c.*)

JOAR.—A town with a mud fort in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, fourteen miles N.E. from Mathura.

JOCOCARTA (*or Yugyacarta.*)—A native province in Java, governed by a sultan, whose territories are so intermixed with those of the Susuhunan of Solo or Suracarta, that it is impossible to discriminate them geographically. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the number of inhabitants in this province was 685,207, of which number 2,202 were Chinese. The town of Jococarta is situated in lat. 7° 50′ S., lon. 110° 25′ E., fifteen miles inland from the Indian Ocean and south-coast of Java, and sixty south from Samarang. In 1815 its population was roughly estimated at 100,000 persons.

Mancobumi, a fortunate rebel, established his throne at Jococarta in A.D. 1756, with the title of sultan, and dying in 1791 was succeeded by his son, who was expelled by the British in 1812, and his grandson substituted, who during the insurrection of 1825 was still a minor.—(*Crawfurd, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

JOBIE ISLE.—A long narrow island lying off the mouth of the great bay in the island of Papua or New Guinea, and situated about the second degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at 120 miles, by fifteen the average breadth. Respecting this island very little is known, it not appearing to have ever been landed on, but only viewed from on board ship. The inhabitants are probably mop-headed Papuas.

JUGGOTEE.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 230 houses, thirteen miles S.E. from Mahudpoor; lat. 23° 23′ N., lon. 75° 55′ E.

JOHNSTON'S ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by a cluster of others; lat. 3° 11′ N., lon. 131° 12′ E. This island consists of low land covered with verdure and coco-nut trees, and is about a league in circumference. The natives are a stout robust race, about 200 in number, and the dialect they speak resembles in many expressions that of

the Sandwich Islands. They understand the value of iron.—(*Meares, &c.*)

Johore.—This principality comprehends the whole eastern extremity of the Malay peninsula, from the river Muar in lat. 2° 10′ N. on the west coast; and from Kumamang in lat. 4° 15′ N. on the east coast. It also includes the numerous islands at the mouth of the straits of Malacca, between the second of north and first of south latitude, besides all the islands in the sea of China lying between the 104th and 109th degrees of east longitude as far as the Natunas. These extensive dominions, however, are virtually partitioned into three realms, *viz.* the islands south of the Malacca straits, which are under the protection of the Dutch; those to the north and the country on the west coast of the peninsula and its extremity, under the protection of the English; and the continental portion on the east-coast, which is independent, and forms the petty state of Pahang.

Of the islands under the Dutch some are large; all sterile and ill-peopled, and some uninhabited. Several, however, yield tin, others black pepper, and one of the largest catechu. By far the most important station is the Dutch settlement of Rhio, situated on the island which Europeans term Bintang. The continental portion of the Johore territories protected by the English, is fully as barren and destitute of population as the insular, and affords no important article of export. Johore, the seat of government, stands about twenty miles up a large river, the mouth of which is in a nook opposite to the north-east end of Singapoor, and not above twenty miles from Cape Romania. It is now nothing more than a small fishing village, and of no importance whatever. Throughout the district the Malay language is spoken in great purity.

The kingdom of Johore was originally founded by adventurers from Sumatra. After the capture of Malacca in 1811 by the Portuguese, Mahmood, the reigning sovereign of that city fled with the chief inhabitants to the extremity of the peninsula, where they founded the principality of Johore, which was conquered by the Portuguese in 1608, and by the Sultan of Acheen in 1613. —(*Marsden, Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

Jotya.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, forty-two miles S.S.E. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 21′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E.

Joobul.—A small principality in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna rivers. Including its dependencies, Ootraj and Sarranee, Joobul is bounded on the east by the Paber river; on the west by Poondur and Bulsun; to the north by Bussaher, and to the south by Sirmore. As far as can be collected from the confused accounts of the natives, Joobul has long consisted of four shares, as they are termed; one under the rana, and three under a like number of hereditary viziers, who are probably descended from officers originally appointed and removed at the pleasure of the rana. Why these viziers, who have done so much towards rendering themselves independent, have not completed the business, can only be accounted for from the peculiar nature of the succession, which is considered to be exclusively vested in a family rather than in an individual; in consequence of which, although instances are frequent of a father having been dispossessed by his son, and an elder by a younger brother, there are none on record of a mere subject being raised to the throne. The settlers among these hills were wholly of the caste called Rorud Rajpoots, emigrants from the south-westward, who formed states among the barbarous tribes, and constituted themselves rulers. Agreeably to their established usages, none but a Rajpoot can reign over even the most insignificant state, and the obstacles to the intrusion of any other caste are wholly and completely insurmount-

able. The succession is thus perpetuated in the same family, and branch of that family, in furtherance of which object, little, if any, increase in the number of Rajpoots is permitted. The rana of one state marries his daughter to the presumptive heir of another, and his own heir makes a similar alliance, which is always expensive, and frequently difficult to effect. The younger sons are married to females of inferior caste, but the whole of their progeny are precluded from the sovereignty; and thus it happens, that while the blood of the reigning prince may flow through the greater part of the population, the caste essentially to rule is invariably lost in the junior ramifications. The utmost, therefore, that the most aspiring vizier can do, is to make the rana his tool; but he must still keep up appearances, and contribute something to his support, and hence the anomaly of an assemblage of states, virtually independent, yet where the more powerful pay tribute, and do homage to the weaker.

After the expulsion of the Gorkhas in A.D. 1814, the state of Joobul was declared independent; but the turbulent character of the people, and the incapacity of their chiefs, prevented the benefits that were expected from this arrangement. It was in consequence intended to re-unite it to Sirmore, on which it had formerly been dependent. In 1815 its possessors and their revenue were as follows:

Divisions.	Possessors.	Estimated revenue in money.
Burhal, including Jukowtee	Rana Poorien Chund	Rs. 2,000
Cutouree and Chayta	Danjee Vizier	5,000
Bhopaul	Praim Sing Vizier	3,000
		Rupees... 10,000

(*Lieut. Ross, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

JOOBUL.—A town in Northern Hindostan, the capital of the preceding principality, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, lat. 31° 10′ N., lon. 77° 35′ E.

JOODHUN.—A hill-fort in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the ghaut mountains facing the western declivity; lat. 19° 14′ N., lon. 73° 7′ E. sixty-two miles E.N.E. from Bombay. It is said that on the S.W. side a stone dropped from the hand would fall almost 2,000 feet perpendicular. It was captured in 1818, after a few hours' bombardment.

JOOGDEA (*Yugadesa*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Tipperah, 76 miles S.E. from the city of Dacca; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 91° 12′ E. In the circumjacent country baftaes of an excellent quality are manufactured, and the government has in the vicinity an establishment for the manufacture of salt; but the article procured, although made at the junction of the Padda, or great Ganges, with the sea, is not held in equal estimation by the Hindoos with that extracted from the holier branches, such as the Bhagirathi (or Hooghly) and others in the Sunderbunds.

JOONEER (*or Soonur*).—A strong hilly district in the province of Aurungabad, situated principally between the eighteenth and nineteenth degrees of north latitude. Besides Poona the principal towns are Jooneer, Chinchoor, Beylah, Moocishwar; the chief streams the Beema, the Ysile, the Indrani, the Moota, and the Moola; the hill-forts and strong positions, capable of being rendered almost impregnable, are very numerous. During the rupture in 1818 with Bajerow, the ex-peshwa, six of these last, each of which might have been defended for months, were captured by the detachment under Major Eldridge in nine days. Jooneer and Harsur were abandoned on the approach of the brigade; Chowpin and Joodun only stood a few hours' bombardment; Hurchundghur and Koon-

junghur were forsaken by their garrisons as soon as the British troops began to ascend the mountains on which they stood. Until these fortresses were taken possession of their strength was unknown, being, as far as nature was concerned, impregnable. A large portion of this division is now attached to the Poona collectorate, under which head further local particulars will be found.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

JOONEER (*or Soonur*).—A town in the province of Aurungabad, the original capital of the above district, situated about 48 miles N. from Poona; lat. 19° 12′ N., lon. 74° 10′ E. During the reign of Madhoorow, the ex-peshwa Bajerow, and his brother, Chinnajee Appa, were confined in the fortress of Jooneer, which, notwithstanding its great natural strength, was in 1818 abandoned by the garrison to a Bombay detachment without resistance. The fort has seven gates of masonry, one within the other, and contains the ruins of many Mahomedan tombs, as well as Hindoo excavations. Among the first are a mausoleum, eedgah and mosque, all in good repair, and the last built over a reservoir cut out of the solid rock. The excavations in the face of the perpendicular rock on which the fortress stands must have required great labour and perseverance; and about a mile south of Jooneer are numerous excavations and cave temples, the sculptures of which prove them to be of Jain origin. When captured, the fort contained only twenty-eight pieces of ordnance, mostly brass, fantastically carved and decorated with figures of birds and fish, and having wings and fins at the sides instead of trunnions.—(*Public Journals, Erskine, &c.*)

JOONKAGHUR.—A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, thirty-six miles N.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 51′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E., 6,813 feet above the level of the sea.

JOONUG.—A village in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles N.E. from the Chour station; lat. 31° 1′ N., lon. 77° 22′ E.

JOORIA.—A seaport town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the gulf of Cutch, twenty-four miles N.W. from Noanagur; lat. 22° 37′ N., lon. 70° 26′ E. This place carries on a brisk traffic with Mandavie and other marts in the gulf of Cutch, and occasionally with Bombay.

JORHAUT.—A town in the province of Assam, which stands on both sides of Dikho river, which according to Lieut. Wood, of the Bengal Engineers, joins the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 48′ N., and lon. 94° 6′ E. In 1794 Jorhaut was the capital of the province, the royal residence, when the disturbances broke out during the reign of Raja Gaurinath, having been transferred to this place, which stands about twenty miles west of Rungpoor, but no brick buildings had then been erected.

JOOSY.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated exactly opposite, across the Ganges, to the fortress of that name; lat. 25° 25′ N, lon. 81° 52′ E

JOSIMATH (*Josimatha*).—A village in Northern Hindostan, situated among the sources of the Ganges, near the junction of the Dauli with a mountain torrent named the Vishnu; lat. 30° 33′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E. In 1808 this place contained from 100 to 150 houses, neatly built of grey stone and roofed with shingles. The sides of the mountains were then covered with oaks, and their summits with firs; and the scarps of the declivities were cultivated with wheat, barley, and other grains. Josimath is the residence of the high priest of Bhadrinath for six months, while the temple at that place is shut up by the inclemency of the winter season. Adjoining the priest's house is a temple of Narsingh, one of Vishnu's incarnations, and there are other smaller ones, containing images of Vishnu, Ganisa, Surya (the sun), and Naou Devi, or the boat goddess.—(*Raper, &c.*)

JOUDPOOR *(Yuddapoor, the city of war)*. An important Rajpoot principality, in the province of Ajmeer, of which it occupies the most central and western portions, and situated generally between the twenty-fifth and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. The ancient name was Marwar, Joudpoor being a mere subdivision of that extensive district, the raja of which is occasionally called the Marwar or Rhatore Raja. On the north his territories are bounded by Bicanere and Jesselmere; on the south they are separated from Gujerat by a range of steep craggy mountains, of difficult access, which send out spurs and branches, the intervals between which are filled with jungle. On the south-east it has Odeypoor; on the east, the British district of Ajmeer, the Shekawutty country, and Jeypoor; and on the west, the territories belonging to the Ameers of Sinde. In 1809, Amerkote, on the borders of Sinde, was in his possession, while to the east his dominions comprehended the town of Meerta, making altogether a distance not much short of 250 miles. At that date, his possessions projected still further to the south-west, as when Raidan Khan, a Baloochie chief, established himself in Rahdunpoor, to the west of the Banass river, a Joudpoor detachment held possession of Futtehpoor, a small fort still further west.

The general soil of the Joudpoor territories is arid, but they do not, as was formerly supposed, excel the rest of Rajpootana in sterility. The land about, and beyond Joudpoor city, possesses as good a soil, and is better cultivated than a large proportion of that belonging to Jeypoor and Odeypoor. The wells are deep, and the processes of agriculture expensive; but villages are numerous, and the surrounding country presents a considerable surface covered with corn and cotton, both of an excellent quality. On account of the sandy quality of the soil, which renders the roads impassable for wheeled carriages, the merchandize is transported on camels and oxen, which are, more especially the latter, of a superior description, and in great demand all over Hindostan. A pair of good Marwar bullocks, for drawing a native carriage, would be reckoned cheap at from 150 to 200 rupees.

The trade from Gujerat chiefly passes through the town of Palhanpoor, which is the greatest inland commercial mart in this part of Rajpootana. The imports into Joudpoor consist of cloths, shawls, spices, opium, rice, sugar steel, and iron. The exports are salt, camels, bullocks, and horses; the last, strong, bony, and of good stature. The cultivators here are mostly Jauts, but the principal inhabitants are Rhatore Rajpoots, a handsome and brave race of men, of the purest castes, the Sesodya, Cutchewa, Addah, and Bawtee. The rajah's dominions are partitioned among many thakoors and jaghiredars, who hold lands on the condition of supporting a certain number of troops for the service of the prince in the time of war; but as these lands descend from father to son in defiance of the sovereign, most of these jaghiredars may be considered as petty chiefs, nearly independent. The country of Joudpoor or Marwar is asserted to have been formerly much more populous and productive than it is at present.

Jeswunt Singh, raja of this state, was one of Aurengzebe's best generals, yet when he died in command, near Cabul in Afghanistan, Aurengzebe gave orders forcibly to convert his children, in defending whom most part of their Rajpoot attendants perished. He expelled the family from the fort, and compelled them to seek refuge among the hills and forests; such was the reward the descendants of one of his most faithful generals received. The raja's family, on the death of Aurengzebe, regained possession, his grandson, Ajeet Singh, termed by the historian Eradut Khan "the hereditary zemindar of Joudpoor," having re-

belled, and destroyed the mosques which the emperor had erected.

In 1803 raja Bheem Singh died, leaving his widow pregnant of a son, afterwards called Dhokul Singh. Before the birth, however, of this offspring, the throne was seized by his uncle, Raja Maun Singh, and the young chief was conveyed by his party to the protection of Ubhi Singh, a Shekawutty, where he remained waiting for an opportunity to expel his uncle and rival; such being, at that period, nearly the situation of all the native states of *Hindostan*, a *sovereign on the throne*, and a pretender to it supported by a strong party in the centre of the court and country.

In 1806, dissensions arose between the rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor, each asserting his claim to espouse the daughter of the rana of Odeypoor, while Sindia and Holkar, with ostensible professions of amity, were privately extorting money from each of them as the price of abstaining from assisting his rival. Of the result of such a complicated system of fraud and intrigue no rational conjecture could be formed, and after the rupture took place many vicissitudes were experienced. The Jeypoor raja having defeated the Joudpoor troops, took some towns, besieged the capital, and appeared in the high road to the accomplishment of his wishes, while the cause of his rival looked proportionally blank; but just as the means and perseverance of the garrison were nearly exhausted, mutinies broke out in the Jeypoor army; many Rajpoot chiefs forsook that standard, while Meer Khan, under pretence of a breach of pecuniary engagements, ravaged the Jeypoor territories, and compelled the raja to retreat from Joudpoor with the utmost precipitation, his own capital being in imminent danger of experiencing the fate he had destined for that of his rival.

In this extremity, the Jeypoor chief, with the view of distracting the leaders who supported Maun Singh, brought forward Dhokul Singh, the legitimate heir of the elder branch of the family; but he made no progress, and in the end of 1807, the only place of importance possessed by his adherents was the town of Nagore. In order to interest the British government in his favour, Dhokul Singh's party offered to pay twelve lacks of rupees in cash, cede five pergunnahs in perpetuity, and subsidize a British force; but this, like many other propositions for the extension of territory, was rejected as inconsistent with the general policy of the British nation.

In conformity to a custom long established in Hindostan, it was usual, when a powerful raja succeeded to his deceased father, to solicit the Mogul to honour him with a tica, as a mark of investiture, or at least of royal approbation; which ceremony consists in having the forehead anointed with a preparation of bruised sandal-wood. Although this inunction had long ceased to be a necessary token of confirmation of the successor's right, it was still considered so gratifying a mark of distinction, that towards the close of 1807, Raja Maun Singh anxiously solicited the British government to interfere with the emperor of Delhi, Acber the second, to obtain it for him. The British government declined interfering, the right of conferring the mark of distinction in question being considered as one of the obsolete acts of sovereignty, the revival of which was particularly objectionable, and by the natives it would have been considered as recognizing the right of one of the contending parties, and departing from the line of strict neutrality which had invariably been observed. Of this the raja was apprized, and the inutility of the act as a mark of confirmation represented to him, as well as the folly of making an unnecessary reference of the validity of his title to a power, which neither claimed nor exercised a right to grant or withhold it.

In the interval that has elapsed

since the above date, Maun Singh has maintained his seat on the Joudpoor throne, where he still reigns, and even extended his conquests, while the heart of his own country was ravaged by Sindia, Holkar, Ameer Khan, or any other depredator who could muster a sufficient number of followers. In 1805, the Joudpoor revenues were estimated by Mr. Metcalfe at fifty lacks; but the insanity of the raja, and the youth and inexperience of his son, for a long time combined to reduce the strength, and increase the desolation of this large principality. In this condition it remained until 1818, when it was the second of the Rajpoot states that entered into engagements with the British government. Sindia was the only power that had legal demands for tribute, which nominally amounted to 1,80,000 rupees per annum, but seldom more than 108,000 were actually paid; and at this last amount the tribute to the British, for protection, was fixed by the treaty. The expulsion of all the military posts placed throughout the country by Ameer Khan, was the first benefit that resulted from these arrangements, which were conducted at Delhi, on the 6th January 1818. In addition to the tribute, the raja engaged to furnish a contingent of 1500 horse, and his country ceased to be, what it had so long been, a nursery and arena for freebooters.

The insubordination of his thakoors, or feudatory chiefs, had so greatly irritated Maun Singh, that he commenced the exercise of the authority to which he had been restored by some violent proceedings against those chiefs, and also aggressions on the miserable district of Sarowy; but subsequently, on the intercession of the British government, he treated the first with more lenity, and abstained from plundering the last; but still his country cannot be considered (1824) as settled, at least in the European sense of the word. Fortunately, however, Maun Singh is an efficient ruler, and has not required our military interference. With reference to the defence of this portion of the north-western frontier of Hindostan, the Joudpoor dominions are of great importance; for, although the city of Joudpoor be above a hundred miles from the frontiers of Gujerat, its territories border on that province, and also on the Lonee river, stations of great importance towards the defence of the British provinces.—(*Archibald Seton, Public MS. Documents, Bishop Heber, G. Thomas, Prinsep, Metcalfe, Malcolm. &c.*)

JOUDPOOR.—The capital of the above principality, situated about 320 miles S W. from from Delhi; lat. 26° 18′ N. lon. 73° E.; travelling distance from Oujein, 260 miles. In 1824 this city was visited by a British embassy, to negociate some arrangements with the Raja; no satisfactory information, however, from that source, regarding its condition or statistics, has ever been communicated to the public. It is said the castle of Joudpoor is very magnificent, being of great dimensions, and solid, though simple architecture.

JOUDPOOR.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eighteen miles S.E. from Huttah; lat. 24° 4′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E.

JOUNSAR.—In Northern Hindostan, a subdivision of the tract of country included between the Sutuleje and Jumna. Between the latter and what is called the Tonse (Tamas) river lie the pergunnahs of Jounsar or Kalsee, and Bhawur, which last appears to have been a component part of the first, although now distinct. For a long time before the British penetrated the hills, these districts had been oppressed, for after suffering under the tyranny of Kurrum Perkaush of Sirmore, they were conquered by the Gorkhas, who used to sell the inhabitants for ready money. At present Jounsar is formed into twenty-six divisions or kuts, and Bhawur into two, each kut having a seanna or head-man, besides one to each village. There are four chief seannas, in whose families, from time

immemorial, was the general control of these pergunnahs, as far as regards revenue assessments and the arbitration of disputes. The articles cultivated are turmeric, ginger, rice, and wheat, all in small quantities; and different metals, but not the precious, are found underground. After the expulsion of the Gorkhas in 1814, Jounsar and Bhawur were separated from Sirmore, and placed under Capt. Birch, who formed a revenue settlement, amounting to 18,700 rupees per annum, which sum was realized without difficulty, notwithstanding the prior reputation of the inhabitants for turbulence. The roads throughout Jounsar are in many parts dangerous for foot passengers, and impracticable even to the hill pony. The least difficult path is through the bed of the Ormlow river, which traverses the centre of the pergunnah.—(*Birch, Public MS. Documents, Sir D. Ochterlony, &c.*)

Jount Ghurry.—A ruined ghurry or native fortification in Northern Hindostan, forty-four miles N. from Hurdwar; lat. 30° 36′ N., lon. 78° 3′ E.

Jowahir Peak.—A peak in Northern Hindostan, district of Jowahir, designated as No. 14, A., No. 2, in Capts. Hodgson and Herbert's survey, and supposed to be the highest mountain in the world; lat. 30° 22′ N., lon. 79° 57′ E. Elevation above the level of the sea, 25,749 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Jowaur.—A town and district in the province of Aurangabad, bounded on the west by the sea, and on the east by the Western ghauts. It now belongs to the British government, but its internal condition is little known. Besides Jowar, the former capital, which stands in lat. 19° 55′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E., forty-four miles S.E. from Damaun, the principal towns, or rather villages, are Mokaura, Segwah, and Aseree. Many mountain streams flow from the Western ghauts into the ocean, the chief of which are the Sooria and the Vaiturani, which last is also the name of the Styx of Hindoo mythologists.

Jowrah.—A small town in Malwa, the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Ghuffoor Khan; lat. 23° 38′ N., lon. 75° 11′ E.; 1,437 feet above the level of the sea. In 1820 the pergunnah of Jowrah contained seventy-three inhabited villages, 4,886 houses, and 20,410 persons, of which last number 3,551 belonged to the town. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Joyghesfer Caves.—A series of excavations wrought through a mass of rock, about one mile and a half distant from the village of Ambolee, in Salsette. The principal cavern is an extensive quadrangle; the roof supported by ranges of pillars, with a temple in the centre, dedicated to Mahadeva. Much elaborate sculpture has been lavished in the decoration of these works; but it is now in many parts obliterated, and the caves generally in a state of great decay, partly owing to the fragile nature of the rock, which easily disintegrates, and partly to their low situation, which exposes them to inundation during the wet monsoon.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Juanpoor.—A district in the province of Allahabad, situated principally between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north lat. To the north it is bounded by the Goggra and the king of Oude's territories; on the south by the Ganges; to the east it has the Goggra, and the Oude dominions on the west.

The land in this district is at present under good cultivation and very productive, notwithstanding the predominance of a sandy soil and the intensity of the sun's rays during the summer season. Very little is allowed to remain waste, and water, no other ways attainable, is procured from underground by human labour. In the neighbouring pergunnahs belonging to his Majesty of Oude, a striking contrast is exhibited. The quantity of land under tillage visibly diminishes, while the mango-clumps which requires little care or capital

proportionally increase, and rank jungle is more universal. There are no fences throughout Juanpoor, except where a row of Indian figs is planted along the road sides. The surface is slightly undulated, and the view frequently interrupted by mango-groves, but there are no elevations amounting to hills or mountains. The district has certainly experienced a progressive improvement since its acquisition by the British government; but the buildings and villages remain as formerly, without convenience, neatness, or cleanliness, it being in most cases difficult to distinguish the house of the zemindar from that of the most obscure peasant. Most commonly the income of a landholder here does not exceed 500 rupees per annum, the Hindoo law of inheritance, which enjoins an equal distribution among the heirs, subdividing the estate to the most minute fractions. They have long been noted as a peculiarly turbulent and refractory race of people, engaged in perpetual broils and quarrels. In 1801 there were no private schools or seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahomedan law; such had existed, but the lands and funds destined for their maintenance had long been sequestered. The remains of many mud forts are still to be seen, but none of masonry, with the exception of Juanpoor fort, which is built of stone. The principal towns in this district are Juanpoor, Azimghur and Mow, and within some villages of the Rajcoomar sect (who practised female infanticide) are to be found. No census approaching to probability has yet been made public.—(*Lord Valentia, Welland, Locke, &c.*)

JUANPOOR.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the banks of the Goomty, thus named from its meandering course, about forty miles N.W. from Benares. The fort is built of solid stone-work, rising considerably above the level of the country, in which on all sides are seen monuments and mosques in ruins. Several of the last are on a scale of great magnificence, and in a style of architecture which seems to have been peculiar to this part of India. They are all remarkable for the height and grandeur of the gothic arch in front, forming the principal entrance, and the two quadrangular towers which occupy the place of minars are joined together at the top by a sort of battlement thrown across before the dome of the central building. A suburb of mud-built huts leads to a large serai, formed of the same material, through which there is a bridge of considerable extent divided into two parts, one over the river during the dry season, but under it during the height of the floods. This bridge has stood 265 years, having been erected by Monahur Khan, the governor of Juanpoor during the reign of Acber, and still remains a monument of his magnificence, of the superior skill of the builder, and solidity of the architecture. In A.D. 1773 a brigade of British troops, under Sir Robert Barker, on their way to Oude, having embarked on the river Goomty at Sultanpoor in the rainy season, sailed over this bridge, which was then submerged, yet it sustained no damage from the violence of the current. No native in modern times is capable of either planning or executing such a piece of architecture.

Juanpoor is said to have been founded by Sultan Feroze of Delhi, who named it after his cousin Faker ul Deen Jowna, and was for some time the seat of an independent empire. In the beginning of the fifteenth century Khaja Jehan, vizier to Sultan Mahommed Shah of Delhi, during the minority of the latter's son, assumed the title of Sultan Shirki, or king of the East, and taking possession of Bahar, fixed his residence at Juanpoor. This dynasty became extinct about A.D. 1492, before which period it had been conquered by Sultan Beloli Lodi. It was conquered by the Moguls during the reign of Acber, and finally came to the British as an integral portion of the

large zemindary of Benares. Travelling distance from Benares forty-two miles; from Lucknow 147 miles. —(*Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Hodges, Ferishta, Stewart, Rennell, &c.*)

JUBBULPOOR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, the modern capital of the provinces north of the Nerbudda, acquired from the Nagpoor raja in 1818; lat. 23° 11′ N., lon. 80° 16′ E., 153 miles N.N.E. from the city of Nagpoor. This place being the seat of government and residence of several wealthy bankers, is better built, and presents an appearance of more industry than is usual in this quarter of India. During the rains it is so enclosed by water that cavalry could not march thirty miles in any direction. In 1824, in digging a well near this place, a stratum of coal was discovered.—(*Fitzclarence, &c.*)

JUDIMAHOO.—A town in the province of Orissa, fifty-eight miles W. by S. from the city of Cuttack; lat. 20° 16′ N., lon. 85° 13′ E.

JUGDEESPOOR.—A town in the province of Oude, fifty-three miles S.E. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 28′ N., lon. 81° 33′ E.

JUBERARA.—A town in the province of Delhi, seventeen miles S.E. from Saharunpoor, lat. 29° 47′ N., lon. 77° 46′ E.

JUGGAO.—A village in the province of Arracan, not far from Ramree, which in 1827 was a thriving place, with an establishment for a commissary of stores.

JUGADREE.—A town in the province of Delhi, eighteen miles N.W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 10′ N., lon. 77° 17′ E.

JUGGERNAUTH (*The lord of the world, one of the 1,000 names of Vishnu, the preserving power*).— A celebrated place of Hindoo worship on the sea-coast of Orissa, district of Cuttack, esteemed the most sacred of all their religious establishments; lat. 19° 49′ N., lon. 85° 54′ E. The town of Juggernauth is also named Pooree and Pursottom.

The holy land of Juggernauth extends properly from the Byturini to the Rassicoyla river at Ganjam; but the more sacred portion is comprized within a range of about eight miles, in the centre of which, on a low ridge of sand-hills, stands the temple of Juggernauth. Although its appearance, from its loftiness and mass of masonry, is imposing, the execution is rude and inelegant, the form of the great tower disagreeable to the eye, while age and red paint have disfigured its exterior. The present edifice was completed in A.D. 1198, under the superintendence of Paramu Hans Bajpoi, the minister of Raja Anang Bheem Deo, the most illustrious of all the Gajapati dynasty of Orissa. The material of which it is constructed is a coarse red granite, resembling sandstone, abundant in the southern parts of Cuttack.

The edifices composing and connected with the temple are very numerous, and stand within a square area enclosed by a lofty stone wall, measuring about 650 feet on each side. A broad flight of twenty-two steps leads from the principal gate of entrance on the east, to a terrace about twenty feet high, enclosed by a second wall 445 feet square, on which occurs the first apartment called the Bhog Mandap. In a line and connected with it by a low portico, is the great antichamber of the temple, called the Jugmohun, which adjoins and opens into the tower or sanctuary. This tower rises to the height of 180 feet from the terrace, or 200 from the ground; its ground plan is a square thirty feet on each side. Most of the other principal Hindoo deities have temples within the two enclosures. The eastern gate is guarded by colossal griffins, and in the front is a figure of the monkey god Hoonimaun, brought from the deserted temple of the sun at Kanarak (the black pagoda) about sixty years ago.

The monstrous idols of the place are Krishna or Juggernauth, of a black or dark-blue colour; Bulbhadra

or Balaram, of a white colour; Subhadra (a form of Devi, Cali Durga, &c.) of a saffron colour; Sudersan, a round staff or pillar with the chacra impressed at each end. These may be seen daily seated on their thrones in the sanctuary, but they are exposed to public view only twice a-year, on the bathing and car festivals, when they are brought outside of the gate, not with decency or reverence, but with a rope tied round their necks, dragged and shoved through the mud by the officiating priests until they reach the car, while the admiring multitude rend the air with "victory to Juggernauth." These much celebrated idols are nothing more than wooden busts about six feet high, fashioned into a rude resemblance of a human head resting on a sort of pedestal. They are painted white, black, and yellow respectively, with grim distorted features, decorated with different coloured head-dresses. The two brothers have arms projecting forward horizontally from the ears, the sister is without arms.

Juggernauth's car is forty-three feet high, with sixteen wheels six and a-half feet diameter, meanly ornamented, with the exception of a covering made of striped and spangled broadcloth, furnished by the British government. If there be obscene sculptures on the car, it requires very searching eyes to find them out. After the images have been properly seated in their vehicles, a box is brought forth, containing the golden or gilded feet, hands, and ears of the great idol, which are fixed in their sockets. The worship is now begun by the Khoordah Raja, who performs the office of sweeper with a highly ornamented broom, and the privileged rent-free inhabitants of the neighbouring pergunnahs seize the ropes, and commence drawing the ponderous machines, while the charioteers exhibit wild, frantic, and indecent postures. Two or three days are usually consumed in reaching the country palace, by which time, so lukewarm has the piety of his votaries become, that but for the rent-free villagers, the cars would infallibly stick there; indeed the whole ceremony would soon decline almost to nothing if left to its own resources.

Various speculations have been hazarded upon the origin and meaning of the worship of Juggernauth, and the causes of the peculiar sanctity of the place; but in all Hindoo mythological discussions, reason and probability are so completely put to flight, that it is impossible to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion. The details also are contradictory and interminable, every writer appearing to have twenty times more to say on the subject than he has already said. All the explanation that the most inteligent Brahmins can or will afford, is, that they worship at Juggernauth Bhagavan, or the supreme spirit itself, and not any subordinate deity. The images are shapeless, they say, because the Veda's inculcate that the great deity has no form, and they have received their present hideous and grotesque countenances to terrify men from their wickedness. He who tastes the food cooked here for the divinity, is absolved from the four cardinal sins of the Hindoo faith, viz. killing a cow, killing a Brahmin, drinking spirits, and committing adultery with the wife of a spiritual pastor. So great is its virtue, that it cannot be polluted by the touch of the lowest caste; and the most inexpiable of all crimes is to eat and handle it without a proper feeling of veneration.

Juggernauth being occupied in joint tenancy by three of the most revered of the Hindoo gods, is one cause why all sects unite here in oblivious harmony. Balbhadra or Balaram, the oldest brother, is identified with Mahadeva (or Siva) by his white colour, and the serpent of eternity which forms a hood over his head. Subhadra, the sister, is esteemed a form of Devi or Cali, the female energy of Siva, who, although not so popular as his dark-blue brother (Krishna), takes precedence in the procession, and has a car of equal dimensions, both circumstances tend-

ing to conciliate his bigotted sectaries. All other Hindoo deities are also allowed a niche, or temple, within the precincts, so that amongst such choice, the most scrupulous devotee may accommodate himself at some shrine.

While the festival lasts, devotees and religious mendicants of all descriptions are seen in crowds, endeavouring to stimulate the charity of the multitude by a great variety of ingenious, whimsical, and preposterous devices. Some remain all day with their head on the ground and their feet in the air; others with their bodies entirely covered with earth Some cram their eyes with mud, and their mouth with straw, while others lie extended in a puddle of water. One man is seen with his foot tied to his neck, another with a pot of fire on his belly; a third enveloped in a net-work of ropes. Nor are the officiating Brahmins idle on these emergencies: on the contrary, all the resources of superstition and priestcraft are brought into active operation, and every offering, from a sweetmeat to a lack of rupees, grasped at with the most importunate rapacity.

The Moguls, during their sway, were always actuated by a particular rancour against Juggernauth, and lost no opportunity of annoying and disturbing its devotees. During these contests the images were twice or thrice carried across the Chilka lake, and concealed among the hills, until the return of more favourable times. But at length religious antipathies yielded to pecuniary interest, and this intestine warfare was put an end to by a tax on pilgrims, said at one time to have yielded nine lacks of rupees. So few pilgrims now court death by throwing themselves under the wheels of Juggernauth's car, that during the four years prior to 1820 only three cases occurred, one said to be accidental, and the other two to get rid of excruciating diseases with which the victims were tormented. Neither are widow-burnings so frequent here as might have been expected, the average for the Juggernauth division not exceeding six, and for the whole district of Cuttack only from twenty to thirty instances, per annum. In fact, the number of pilgrims, loss of life, and other circumstances tending to vilify the place, have been grossly exaggerated, though in late seasons many are certainly destroyed by exposure to the inclemency of the weather.

When the province of Cuttack was conquered from the Maharattas, the British government succeeded to all their rights as sovereigns, and consequently to the revenue derived from the resort of Hindoo pilgrims to the temple of Juggernauth: possession was accordingly taken of the town and temple on the 18th September 1803; the sacred will of the idol having been first ascertained through the medium of the officiating priest. In 1806 the amount realized here was 1,17,490 rupees; the expenditure about 56,000 rupees; in 1813 the net receipts were 69,902, the expenditure 31,417; in 1815 the gross receipts amounted to 86.027, the charges to 74,880 rupees, leaving a net balance of only 11,147 rupees. The following is a statement from authentic sources of all classes for the last five years at the three great festivals.

A.D.	Taxed.	Exempt.	Total.
1817-18	35,941	39,720	75,641
1818-19	36,241	4,870	41,111
1819-20	92,874	39,000	131,874
1820-21	21,946	11,500	33,446
1821-22	35,160	17,000	52,160

The town of Juggernauth, better known in Cuttack by the name of Pooree, owes its size and importance entirely to its connection with the temple which it surrounds; the whole being sacred ground and entirely rent-free. A wide and straight street opens from the northern front of the temple, containg many well-built native houses of masonry, intermixed with Bairaggy colleges or maths, and resting-places for the idol, when he proceeds on his excursion to the country. In 1822 it contained 5,741 houses, mostly inhabited by the

priests and officers attached to the temple. The large streets have also many houses of masonry, with high terraces in front; but they are much encumbered with dust and rubbish, and the whole place has a miserably squalid appearance, whereas most other Hindoo places of pilgrimage are remarkable for comfort and neatness.

The cantonment of Pooree is built about half-a-mile from the town on the naked sands of the beach, with scarcely a blade of grass within 500 yards. In consequence, however, of the bend formed here by the shore, the south-west monsoon blows off the sea, and from March to June it is one of the coolest and most salubrious stations in India. The road from Bengal to Juggernauth, begun in 1810 by Raja Sookmoy Roy of Calcutta, in 1810, was completed by the government about 1819; but being formed merely of the common soil of the country, it did not possess sufficient tenacity to resist the heavy floods of Cuttack, which greatly damaged both the road and the bridges over the rivers. Latterly, in order to fix the soil, vegetation was encouraged on the road, which for a time suspended its utility, and the Buddruck and Cuttack road was found to be so roundabout, that it was little frequented either by troops or travellers. Travelling distance from Calcutta 311 miles; from Nagpoor 500; from Benares 512; from Madras 719; from Delhi 910; and from Bombay 1,052 miles.—(*Sterling, Fullarton, Ward, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

JUGGETH.—See DWARACA.

JUGGETH PETTAH.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Masulipatam, and situated close to the western frontier. This place is inhabited by opulent traders, the security of whose persons and property is of the utmost importance to the neighbouring country. Prior to the establishment of the judicial system a strong body of local militia were stationed here, but they were subsequently withdrawn.

JUGGURMANPOOR.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, eighteen miles N.W. from Jalown; lat. 26° 25′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E.

JUGIGHOPA.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, situated on the north side of the Brahmaputra, nearly opposite to Goalpara; lat. 26° 12′ N., lon. 90° 35′ E. In 1809 it contained only 150 huts and a few shops, but greatly surpasses any other collection of habitations, there being no other place in the vicinity that deserves the name of town, or even village. Bamboos and timber are procured in great plenty from the neighbouring forests. Near the hamlet of Tokor there is a remarkable hill, consisting of a vast mass of granite, much rent, from the crevices of which fine trees spring up. At the beautiful lakes named Toborong, north of Jugighopa, there is a considerable fishery, where about 1,400 maunds (eighty pounds each) are annually procured and dried for sale, of which the Bijnee raja takes half as his due. To restrain the neighbouring wild, and more than semibarbarous tribes, a small military detachment under a European officer is usually stationed here.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

JUKAH.—A small town in the province of Mooltan, situated on the brow of a hill, one-third of a mile from the Indus, on the road between Tatta and Hyderabad; lat. 25° N. Opposite to Jukah the breadth of the river is two-thirds of a mile, with five fathoms water.

JULLALPOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the south side of the Jumna, twenty-six miles N.E. from Banda; lat. 25° 40′ N., lon. 80° 38′ E.

JUMBOSIER (*Jambhusira*).—A pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, of an irregular square form, bounded on the north by the Mahy; on the south by the Dhadur; on the east by the Baroda division; and on the west by the sea. Its entire area is about 240 square miles; level, and

almost wholly arable. The black cotton soil here is a rich vegetable mould, unmixed with sand or pebbles, generally more than three feet deep, but sometimes actually twenty feet in depth.

The Jumbosier pergunnah is divided into nine tappas or sections, containing eighty villages, and its total population in 1820 rather exceeded 50,000 persons, almost wholly agricultural. The Mahomedans are about one-sixth of the whole, and some of their converts of Rajpoot origin still retain their Hindoo appellatives, such as Ram Gopaul and Pertaub Singh, notwithstanding their conversion. The principal town is Jumbosier the capital, and the chief seaport Tunkaree. Domestic slavery is common, but in the existing state of society and manners it is no practical evil.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

JUMBOSIER.—A town in the province of Gujerat, the capital of the preceding pergunnah, situated on the Jumbosier river, twenty-six miles N.N.W. from Broach; lat. 22° 6′ N., lon. 73° 3′ E. This place stands near an extensive lake, the banks of which are ornamented with Hindoo temples, overshadowed by mangoe and banyan trees, and the surface almost concealed by the leaves and flowers of the lotus. A considerable trade is carried on from hence with Bombay; the exports consist of cotton, grain, oil, and piece goods. In 1820 it contained 10,400 inhabitants. Gangadhara, a celebrated Hindoo mathematician, was a native of this town.—(*Forbes, Marshall, &c.*)

JUMNA RIVER (*Yamuna*).—In the early maps of Hindostan their constructors bestowed on the Jumna a very long course from lat. 34° 30′ N., but it does not appear on what authority, nor was it known that this river was comparatively a small one above its junction with the Tonse in lat. 30° 30′ N., which river, notwithstanding it trebled the Jumna in size, remained unknown to Europeans and loses its name in that of the smaller stream.

The source of the Jumna is on the south-west side of the great snowy peaks of Jumnoutri seen from Saharunpoor, and estimated at 25,000 feet above the level of the sea. In this circumstance it differs from the Ganges which has the upper part of its course within the Himalaya. In April 1817, when visited by Captain Hodgson, the snow at Jumnoutri, which covered and concealed the stream of the Jumna, was sixty yards wide, and bounded on the right and left by several precipices of granite. This mass of snow had fallen from the heights above, and when measured by a plumb-line let down through one of the holes caused by the steam of a boiling spring, was found to be forty feet thick. This mass was solid and frozen hard, but Captain Hodgson managed to descend through one of the holes, and having fired some white lights, beheld a magnificent scene. The range of the hot springs is very extensive, and some of them are hot enough to boil rice. They rise through crevices in the granite with much ebullition, and deposit a ferruginous cement. Their mean latitude is 30° 59′ N., from whence the Jumna flows south with a considerable descent through the province of Gurwal, where at Kalsee Ghaut, in latitude 30° 30′ N. it is joined by the Tonse, which, although much the largest stream, loses its name at the point of junction. In this portion of its course the Jumna runs nearly parallel with the Ganges, and at the village of Gurudwar, where they are only forty miles distant, it has a large stream. On the 21st April at Jumnoutri, the stream of the Jumna was only three feet wide, and a few inches deep.

The Jumna issues from the mountains in the province of Delhi, near the small village of Fyzabad, about twenty-six miles north of Saharunpoor. The hills come close to the right bank of the river immediately opposite to this village, but on the right bank they are distant about three miles. The river here is deep in its bed, which is about 1,000 yards broad, and in the wet monsoon rolls

down a prodigious volume of water; but in the dry season its stream is not above 100 yards broad. A short distance below Fyzabad the Jumna separates into several channels, but chiefly into two considerable branches, which meet again below Booraghaut at a distance of eighteen miles, forming an extensive island, well inhabited and cultivated. Over the above space its bottom is sand and gravel, with frequent rapids, which admit, however, of small timber rafts being floated, which are afterwards taken to pieces and formed into large ones.

The Doab (or Zabeta Khan's) canal commences immediately below Fyzabad, and under different names extends to Delhi. From the village of Fyzabad upwards, the Jumna divides itself into two branches, which unite again where the hills approach near to the left bank, at which spot the river is precipitated into the right branch over a considerable declivity; but the head of the right branch leading to Fyzabad has been long choked up with sand, gravel, and stones. Near Fyzabad, which is twenty-six miles north from Saharunpoor, the water of the Jumna is dammed up to force into the Doab canal.

The Jumna proceeding on in a S.S.W. direction, nearly in a line with the Ganges, but at the distance of from fifty to seventy-five miles they gradually unite at Allahabad, where the Jumna, although little inferior in magnitude, has its name absorbed by that of the more holy stream. Including the windings, the length of its course may be estimated at 780 miles. This river is only a useful barrier to the eastern British territories during the rainy season, when military operations are almost, from the nature of the country, impracticable. It is fordable in several places above Agra before the first of October, and cannot be looked upon as a boundary of any strength above its junction with the Chumbul, ten miles below Etaweh, where, in the dry season, the passage is rendered difficult by a limestone bank, which it was the intention of the British government to have removed. Except in this spot the channel of the Jumna is both larger and deeper than that of the Ganges.

In Hindoo mythology Yamuna (Jumna) is the sister of Yama, the judge of the infernal regions, also the daughter of the Sun, so that her lineage and connections are very respectable. The name is common to many other Indian rivers, and has been variously corrupted into Emona, Jumna, and Jubuna.—(*Capt. Hodgson, General Kyd, Jas. Fraser, Sir John Malcolm, Lieut. Blane, &c.*)

JUMNOUTRI (*Yamunavatari*).—A place of pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan; lat. 30° 52′ N. The name has distinct reference to the spot where ablution is performed, and worship paid to the goddess, the height of which is 10,849 feet above the level of the sea. Jumnoutri is remarkable for its hot springs. The temperature of the water where it issues from the rock is 194°, which, considering its elevation, is nearly the point at which water is converted into vapour.—(*Captains Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

JUNAGHUR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, division of Soreth; lat. 21° 29′ N., lon. 70° 38′ E., sixty miles N.N.W. from Juggeth point. This is the capital of a petty Mahomedan state of some celebrity in the Gujerat peninsula, the chiefs of which are sprung from the same tribe as the nabobs of Radhunpoor. In 1808 Hamed Khan Babi was fined 40,000 rupees by Colonel Walker on account of piracies committed by his subjects and connived at by himself. He died in 1811, when his son Bahadar Khan Babi possessed himself of the government; but disorders subsequently arising, all the powers of the state were usurped by the Jemadars of the Arabs, who imposed such restraints on the nabob that he implored the interference of the British government, which compelled these mercenaries, their arrears being first liquidated, to retire from the peninsula.

In 1811 the total amount of the Junaghur revenues of every decription were estimated at.........Rs. 632,000
Deduct amount embezzled 236,000

396,000

Disbursements:
Paid to the Guicowar 75,000
Government expenses230,000
Junaghur jummabundy....................175,000
—480,000

Deficient ... 84,000

The above statement exhibits an instance of the regular confusion of the revenue arrangements of native states, and more especially of the Maharattas. In this instance the Guicowar levied 1,75,000 rupees on his own and the Peshwa's domains for the benefit of the Junaghur government, while the last levied 1,03,000 rupees, of which only 75,000 are paid on account of the Guicowar.—(*Carnac, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

JUNDAH.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, seventy-five miles N.N.W. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 27° 50′ N., lon. 72° 17′ E.

JUNGEYPOOR (*Jangalpura*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Moorshedabad, seventeen miles N.W. from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 28′ N., lon. 88° 13′ E. This is the greatest silk station in the possession of the East-India Company; the others are Cossimbazar, Malda, Bauleah, Comercolly, Radnagore, and Rungpoor. The first attempt made to establish a silk factory was at Budge-Budge, below Calcutta, and did not succeed. The buildings at Jungeypoor were erected in 1773, and in 1803 about 3,000 persons were employed. They use the Italian method of spinning, introduced so early as 1762, by some natives of Italy sent over on purpose by the Company. The worms are reared by women and children, and the cocoons purchased on government account.

The mulberry-tree is the oriental: it is dwarfish, and the leaves but indifferent, to which is attributed a degeneracy in the breeds that have been introduced from foreign countries. The Chinese mulberry was tried, but did not thrive. The number of trees may be augmented indefinitely, nor, under proper management, can any limit be assigned to the production of silk. In 1802, the investment stood the Company in about five and a half rupees (twelve shillings) per pound. The employment is said to have no deleterious effect, and is certainly very advantageous, as very young children are capable of assisting.—(*Lord Valentia, &c.*)

JUNGLEBARRY (*Jangalbarry*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsingh, sixty miles N.E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 27′ N., long. 90° 42′ E.

JUNGLE MAHALS.—A district of modern creation in the province of Bengal, which consists of dissections from the contiguous jurisdictions of Burdwan, Midnapoor, Ramghur, &c.; but its limits are as yet so ill defined that it is not possible to specify its dimensions. The head-quarters of the public functionaries are at Bancoorah, near Chatna; lat. 23° 20′ N., lon. 87° 10′ E. The name of this district implies a waste territory and backward stage of civilization; yet it appears, from the report of the circuit judge in 1815, that no instance of gang robbery or arson had occurred during the previous six months, and in India, when a country furnishes few materials for history, it may be presumed to be going on tolerably well. Teak trees have been planted at the expense of government, both at Bauleah and in the Jungle Mahals, where, in 1813, some plants brought from the botanic garden had attained the height of twenty-five feet.

JUNGUM (*a sect*).—See PANSHAPOOR.

JUNGSEAL.—A town in the province of Lahore, 100 miles S.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 31° 6′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E.

JUNKCEYLON (*Jan Sylan*).—A distant and neglected province of the Siamese empire, situated about the eighth degree of north latitude, and twice a day an isthmus, and the same number of times an island, being separated from the main land by a sand-bank, daily overflowed at high-water, the springs rising about ten feet; length forty miles by fifteen in breadth. It forms the northern point of the straits of Malacca. Inland the country is mountainous, but towards the sea it is low, well supplied with water, and fruitful. The hills are covered with forests of large and useful timber; the soil varies, but is chiefly clay, yielding, when properly cultivated, the common rice, the scented rice, the red and purple rice, and the glutinous rice, both white and red: the last much esteemed by convalescents.

The strait separating Junkceylon from the main is five leagues in length, and affords a very good harbour; in some parts it is contracted to 600 yards. The entrance from the strait is almost blocked up by sand, and navigable only for boats during fair weather, the tide running very strong. The continent opposite to Junkceylon, from Popra to Tacorpa, thirty miles in extent, is very thinly peopled by Siamese; the villages mostly situated five miles inland; between them and the sea thick jungle being left as a protection against the Malay pirates. The Siamese have no access to this country except by sea, unless they cross from Ligore over the mountains, and through dense forests. The country north of Tacorpa is mostly uninhabited as far as the town of Mergui, principally owing to its having been a frontier between Ava and Siam; the space is covered with jungle, and swarming with elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, and other wild beasts.

Tin is the grand staple of Junkceylon, where it is found in extraordinary abundance, and of the best quality. The mines are generally excavations in the form of caves, and wholly managed by Chinese. After being dug out it is washed by the stream process, and cast into slabs of thirty pounds downwards. It is also pounded in wooden mortars, and afterwards roasted. Some portions of the ore when assayed in Calcutta yielded sixty-five per cent. of fine tin. A majority of the natives profess the Buddhist religion of Siam, but there are also Mahomedans and Chinese. Prior to the Burmese invasions, they were supposed to amount to 14,000 persons, but so completely had the country been depopulated by migration and slaughter, that Governor Philips, of Pulo Penang, in 1824, did not estimate them at more than 1,000, Chinese included. Sea-slug and birds'-nests were formerly exported in considerable quantities; ambergris is sometimes found on the beach, and the woods contain much valuable timber. The S.W. and N.E. monsoons prevail here; the first from May to November, but the heavy rains are in September and October, calms frequently in January and February.

The French attempted to form a settlement here so early as 1688, but, except for short intervals, Junkceylon has always formed part of the dominions of the Siamese, and governed by a functionary called by them Bhura Silan, or Lord of Sylan. Subsequent to 1785, for a short time it came under the Malays of Queda, and was by them repeatedly offered to the British government. In 1810 the Burmese obtained possession, which they kept for several months; but their garrison being unsupported and destitute of provision, was compelled to surrender at discretion; when the chief officers were beheaded, and the remainder, amounting to 4,000, transported into exile and slavery, here synonymous terms. It is now a dependency on Pungah, a Siamese settlement, on a river of the same name, and nearly opposite to the northernmost point of Pulo Panjang. In 1818 it was projected to procure its cession from the Siamese, to whom, notwithstanding its richness in tin, it was scarcely of

ny value; and by the treaty of Yandaboo, in 1826, its importance has been increased by its contiguity to the British acquisitions in that quarter. — (*Governors Light and Phillips, Forrest, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Jurkeira.—A town in the province of Ajmere, twenty-five miles N.E. from the city of Ajmere; lat. 26° 38′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E.

Jushpoor.—A zemindary in the province of Gundwana, bounded on the east by that of Chuta Nagpoor, and on the north by the Sirgoojah country. But little is known of its interior, except that, like the adjacent portions of the Bahar province, it has a hilly surface and barren soil, little cultivated, and much overgrown with jungle. The town of Jushpoor stands in lat. 22° 11′ N., lon. 83° 51′ E., seventy-four miles N. by E. from Sumbhulpoor. Both town and district are dependent on Sirgoojah.

Juts.—See Jutwar.

Jutwar.—A division of the Gujerat province, which extends along the Runn morass, and is intersected during the rainy season by several branches of the Banass river, by the Sereswati, and the Roopeyne. Although this tract is more particularly designated as the country of the Juts or Jhats, yet the name has a most comprehensive extent, for the provinces east of the Indus, subject to Cabul, are peopled by a class of Hindikies called Juts, who also compose the Mahomedan peasantry of the Punjab, form the principal population of Sinde, and are found mixed with Baloochies throughout all the south-west of Baloochistan and Muckelwand. From the manners, appearance, and customs of this tribe, there is reason to believe that the Juts, wherever placed, were all originally Hindoos, and converted to the Mahomedan faith after the Arabian invasion; and the immense space through which they are now scattered, renders a more circumstantial investigation of their origin and history desirable.

The tribe of Juts that at present occupy Jutwar, are of Sindian extraction, the caste being common both in Sinde and Cutch. Until restrained by the British government, they were a turbulent race, who at particular seasons carried their plundering excursions to a great distance from their own precincts; after which, until next year, they remained absorbed into, and undistinguished from the general mass of the population. They profess the Mahomedan religion, and in their manners resemble the Baloochies; but they do not intermarry with the Mahomedans of Werrear. They kill cows without scruple, and eat the flesh of oxen in preference to any other. Although these Juts are plunderers by birth, parentage, and education, yet many portions of their own territories were found populous and well cultivated. In 1809 Hamier Khan and Omar Khan were the principal Jut chieftains. In this tribe the females exercise an influence over the men, rarely permitted among the followers of the Koran, and a woman can, when she chooses, leave her husband and marry another.—(*Macmurdo, Elphinstone, Pottinger, &c.*)

Jwalamukhi.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated about thirty miles S.E. from Kangra. It was once a considerable mart, where many Gossain merchants resided; but during the disturbances it was plundered by the Raja of Gular, who had joined Ammer Singh, the Gorkha commander. At Jwalamukhi, where, in the dispersion of her members, the tongue of the goddess Parvati fell, there is a small temple of about twenty feet square. According to native accounts it is paved with large stones, and from a hole in one corner there issues a constant flame, which, when at the lowest, rises about eighteen inches; but in the rainy season issues with great violence, flames bursting from various parts of the floor, and from places beyond the limits of the temple.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

JYAPOOR.—A town in the province of Orissa, seventy miles N.W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 18° 25′ N., lon. 82° 43′ E.

JYENAGUR.—See JEYPOOR.

JYGUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, situated in the vicinity of Paniput, and for some time possessed by the adventurer, George Thomas.

JYTOK (*Jaitak*).—A fortress in Northern Hindostan, situated on the lofty end of a ridge about three miles from Nahan, and forty-five N.E. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 34′ N., lon. 77° 12′ E., and about 3,600 feet above the level of the plains. Among the singular customs in this quarter (besides polyandria, which is here practised), the mode of lulling children asleep, and afterwards keeping them so, may be mentioned. To accomplish the first, the mother seizes the child with both arms, and aided by her knee, gives it a violent rotatory motion, the effect of which is such that in thirty seconds it is fast asleep. It is then carried into a shed, and placed on a small bench or tray (the body and feet being previously wrapped in blankets), when a slender stream of water, through a hollow cane is made to fall on the crown of the head, so as to keep the top always wet, and in this condition it is left to its repose.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

K.

KABROUANG ISLE.—An island in the eastern seas, about twenty miles in circumference, separated from Salibaboo Island by a strait, four miles broad; lat. 3° 50′ N., lon. 126° 35′ E. It is well cultivated and peopled, but the inhabitants are engaged in frequent wars with those of the neighbouring isles. Kabrouang may be seen eighteen leagues off, being remarkable for a high-peaked hill in the centre.

KACHNAL SERAI.—A considerable town in the province of Malwa, division of Chendaree, belonging to Sindia, and well supplied with bazars. Many streams have their sources in this neighbourhood; lat. 24° 30′ N., lon. 77° 35′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KADIRGUNGE (*Cadarganj*).—A town in the province of Agra, forty-two miles N.W. from Furruckabad; lat. 27° 49′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E.

KAGALWALA.—A small town in Afghanistan, situated on the west side of the Indus, where that river is joined by the Koorum; lat. 32° 40′ N., lon. 70° 55′ E.

KACHUZWARA.—A well-peopled village, built of black stone, in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the margin of a small lake, about one mile and a half from the top of the ghaut, leading from Dowletabad to Elora. This place, as its name imports, is noted for the manufacture of paper.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

KAHAWATTA.—An inland village in Ceylon, twenty-three miles N.E. from Dondra head; lat. 6° 7′ N., lon. 80° 53′ E. Near to Kahawatta is a stupendous rock, called by the Dutch Adam's Berg; and by the Ceylonese, Mulgeereelena. This mass is one entire rock, of a smooth surface and cubic form, 300 feet high, and ascended by a winding flight of stairs, of 545 steps, hewn out of the solid rock. On the summit is a bell-shaped tomb, or temple, dedicated to Buddha, besides others excavated half-way up. From the top the view is extensive, and at the bottom are the dwellings of some Buddhist priests.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

KAHEREE.—A town in Afghanistan; lat. 21° 35′ N., lon. 70° 25′ E. At this place, early in May, the main stream of the Indus is above 1,000 yards broad and twelve deep, although its breadth is diminished by several branches, one of which is 250 yards broad. Men and cattle are transported across in flat-bottomed boats of fir, capable of carrying from thirty to forty tons.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Kailwara.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixty-six miles E. from Kotah; lat. 25° 14′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E.

Kaimla.—A village with a small mud fort of considerable strength, in the province of Agra, eleven miles west from Hindore. In 1819 it belonged to the raja of Jeypoor.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Kaira *(or the eastern district of the Mahy river)*.—A British district in the province of Gujerat, the territories belonging to which are so extended, straggling, and intermixed with others belonging to native powers, that it is impossible to discriminate them without a map. They consist principally of lands ceded at different periods by the Guicowar and Peshwa, more especially the first, and formed into a separate jurisdiction, under the Bombay presidency, having its head-quarters in the city of Kaira. The river Karee runs through an extensive tract of country between Kaira and Ahmedabad, and forms the boundary between the two zillahs that take their designations from these cities, and named also the eastern and western zillahs north of the Mahy.

Much good soil is to be found in this district, which, when under proper cultivation, is very productive; but its population seems inadequate in proportion to its extent, as in 1819 it was only estimated at 411,000 persons, viz.

Coonbies, an agricultural caste	93,406
Coolies	86,449
All other classes and castes	231,145
Total	411,000

These, however, are probably the numbers directly subject to British jurisdiction, not the total population of so great a space. The river Karee irrigates a considerable extent of country, and might be made still more beneficial, were its channels, which are now choked up, cleared and deepened. The cultivation of Bourbon cotton did not succeed in consequence of the occurrence of frost, during two successive seasons, more especially on the third of February 1820, when it was so severe that the cotton plantations were completely destroyed.

The system of revenue collection recommended by Sir Thomas Munro generally prevails in Kaira, with one distinction, which is, that instead of fixing the rental of a village and then portioning out the parts to be contributed by each cultivator; in Kaira the rental is first determined, and the gross amount of the individual rents, whatever it may ultimately prove to be, constitutes the total rent of the village. This village assessment is so consonant with what was already established in the province, that to give it effect had more the appearance of regulating what had always existed, than the introduction of any innovation. In this district the revenues are fully and punctually realized; indeed, the sale of landed property for the purpose of making good the demand of the state is a measure scarcely ever had recourse to in the territories subordinate to the Bombay presidency. When ceded to the British government in 1805-6, the tracts composing the Kaira collectorate yielded 13,09,155 rupees; more recently the average of the land jumma has been as follows:

For the year 1818	Rs.	17,19,614
1819		18,39,526
1820		18,43,084

The number of Bhatts and Bharotts in this quarter of Gujerat is very great, and their influence considerable, as may be inferred from their being, until within these few years, resorted to in all the districts north of the Mahy river, not only for the security of the revenue, but for submission to the law, and the personal appearance of the inhabitants when summoned. The means by which these impostors so long maintained their influence was by operating on the superstitions of the Hindoos, who revere persons who dare resort

to traga when insulted or oppressed. Traga is an act of violence, sometimes on their own persons, at others by putting some person to death; but usually by a cut on their own arm, or other part of their body; the individual causing this act, however innocently, being supposed responsible for its iniquity, and in general is so confused and panic struck, that he acquiesces in whatever is demanded from him. Should he, however, prove obstinate, and resist the imposition, the Bharotts assemble in great numbers at his door, and threaten, that unless he complies with their requisition, they will immolate a human being. The object they select for this purpose is commonly an old woman, not of their own tribe, but of that named Tragala, a race employed about the temples, and of the lowest caste of Hindoos. In prosecuting these attempts at intimidation, one or two of this tribe frequently become victims; but if still unavailing, they proceed, as a dernier resort, to the sacrifice of their own mothers, sisters, daughters, and wives, and what is equally extraordinary, these infatuated creatures with eagerness offer themselves to meet what they esteem a species of martyrdom. During the imbecile government of the native princes the efficacy of their control in Gujerat depended greatly on the support they afforded to the Bharotts; of course no measures were ever contemplated to weaken an influence so intimately blended with that of the ruling power.

After the cession to the British government the practice appears to have fallen greatly into disuse, as the trial of a Bhatt in 1808, for the murder of his daughter, afforded the only example (until 1816) of the sacrifice known to have occurred within the Kaira jurisdiction, since the establishment of a regular court of justice. On that occasion the prisoner acknowledged the commission of the act, but pleaded ignorance of its being one for which he could be considered criminal, as he conceived such extremities to be authorized by the customs of his tribe. In some of the pergunnahs, such as those of Gogo, Ranpoor, Dundooka, and a large portion of Dholka, abounding with the turbulent classes, where the introduction of the British sovereignty was long protracted, the Bhatt influence had never been introduced: yet, notwithstanding the deplorable condition of the society when first ceded, the effects of a regular administration of justice gradually operated a reform in the habits of the Grassias and Coolies, without the extraneous aid of superstitious agency, which in fact had gained strength in these territories only, where conflicting Maharatta pretensions had paralyzed the operations of the regular police, rather than in places where the vestiges of an established government continued. In fact, the agency of the Bhatts, if at all necessary, seemed solely adapted for the controlling of the wildest Mewassy villages.

In 1816 a disturbance attended with bloodshed broke out in the village of Mahtur, not far from the city of Kaira, caused by the resistance of the Bhatts to the orders of government regarding the mensuration of their lands. The ferment, however, did not extend, and was viewed by the great mass of the population with feelings decidedly averse to the cause of the agitators, who very generally regretted the forbearance that was evinced by government on the occasion. The latter had hoped that, by proceeding to extremities, a sympathy in their behalf would have been excited, which would eventually give them a victory over the laws; whereas, in consequence of the moderate line of conduct pursued, the great body of the inhabitants contented themselves with remaining tranquil spectators. Since the perpetration of this outrage, the security of Bhatts for the realization of the revenue has been wholly dispensed with, nor has the least inconvenience been experienced from the want of their services.

The prevailing offences tried at the Kaira circuit in 1811 and 1812 were

burglaries or house-breakings, and those punished by the magistrate, larcenies and petty thefts. Cases of murder were very rare; and although the fabrication of base money was so common, both in this district and the adjacent countries, as to frustrate all ordinary means of suppression, few, if any, cases were brought before the judge. Gang robberies were by far the most frequent crime: but the difficulty of seizing the delinquents on the spot, or tracing the leaders to conviction, accounts for its rarely forming a class of crimes in the calendar. But the increasing confidence of merchants and travellers, and the extended cultivation of waste lands, tend to prove the decrease of this species of crime; a fact which the natives admit as unquestionable. As perpetrators of these atrocities the Coolie tribe stand conspicuous; but even this lawless race appear to be gradually forsaking habits that seemed indelible, and it is probable that the continuance of a firm and steady system of government, by encouraging their confidence, recognizing their just rights, and repressing their evil propensities, will in time convert them to industrious cultivators and peaceable subjects.

Another very general crime in this district was bharwattye, which greatly infested the pergunnah of Dholka, and was committed most frequently by the Rajpoot Grassias, who, although they have every thing to lose, frequently disregard their real interests, when set in competition with their notions of false honour, private pique, or fancied oppression; sometimes to shun the payment of just debts, at others to obtain an object by unwarrantable means, to which they have no equitable claims. With the view of obtaining their ends, these persons desert their houses and become vagabonds (bharwattye), attacking all indiscriminately; and until coerced by the strong hand of the British government, they ultimately almost always succeeded in gaining their object. Formerly disputes respecting boundaries were very frequent, and were decided by contests of several hundred armed men; but these also have generally disappeared. The tragas of the Bharotts might also be included in the calendar of crimes: but under the influence of a mild, steady, and not precipitate judicial system, this species of tragi-comedy is rapidly falling into disuse.

The authority of the law in the western districts ceded by the Peshwa, in 1812 was in its infancy. The Rajpoots of that quarter are a high-spirited race, requiring the curb of a strong arm; but they are not perseveringly untractable when they perceive the necessity or advantage of obedience. Kaira, the seat of the court, however, is too distant for the vigorous maintenance of its authority, unless seconded by a very efficient local jurisdiction. In these ill-protected spots, long before sunset, the ploughs are unyoked, and the wells deserted by the peasantry, that they may in time seek refuge within the walls or bound hedge of the village; thus leaving immense tracts of valuable land in a state of nature, which, under a more efficient police, would by increased cultivation amply repay the expenditure incurred for its protection. This argument for strong government establishments is founded on an interested motive; but a still more powerful reason may be deduced from the inveterate habits of the people governed. It is probably so many ages since they learned to make common cause against the existing government, that it is as yet hopeless to expect assistance from any part of the society in tracing or apprehending any criminal of distinction. So contrary does the current run, that it is held scandalous to assist in his seizure; and the securities tendered are of no avail, as the parties forfeit their bond and suffer its penalties rather than surrender the delinquent when the government is considered a party against him; even their own deadly feuds seem to cease when their lawful superior interferes.

The mass of the natives in this irter of India have always been isidered a most untractable race, l it has required the perseverance l abilities of some of the most inent and energetic of the Bombay il and military servants to reduce m to subordination; which has, vever, been at last effected by the d and conciliatory authority so g exercised over them. The north- portions still continue exposed rruptions of plundering horse from neighbouring territories, under ive chiefs, who still find some vil- ›rs that sympathize with them in ir predatory habits. When first uired, the influence of the Bhatts Bharotts throughout the Kaira rict was predominant; but in con- uence of the moderate line of duct pursued, this also has died y, and traga become compara- ly of rare occurrence.—(*Keate, lic MS. Documents, A. Robertson, oles, &c.*)

Kaira.—The capital of the pre- ing district, and head-quarters of judge and magistrate; lat. 22° 47′ lon. 72° 48′ E., about forty miles th from Cambay. This is pro- ly not a very ancient town, at least do not find it mentioned in his- ', and selected as the seat of a cial station. In 1780 it is de- bed by Mr. Forbes as belonging he Guicowar, and situated near confluence of two small rivers, Watruck and Seyree, and forti- in the Hindostany mode, with a k wall flanked by irregular towers; buildings of the town being al- t concealed by trees, which did indicate a very crowded popula- .

1824 the condition of Kaira was d greatly improved, having been nore than twenty years possessed he British. It is now a large and ably neat town, surrounded by ty stone wall, with semicircular ions, in good repair, and suffi- ly strong to repel Cooly depre- rs. The streets within, though solid and lofty, with sloping tiled roofs, and a good deal of carving in the wood-work of their gable-ends and verandahs. The church is a large and clumsy building, finished in 1824. The cantonments of Kaira stand about one mile and a half from a small town of the same name, with a river between them, crossed by a wooden bridge, but in the dry season quite fordable. The majority of the wells are quite brackish, but there is a very fine one at the military hospital; the station, however, is reckoned ge- nerally unhealthy, the face of the dis- trict in some degree resembling that of Lower Bengal.

Near the centre of the town is a large Jain temple and school; the first containing many small apart- ments up and down stairs, and even under ground, with much gaudy or- nament, and some beautiful carving in a wood like oak. In one of the upper rooms is a piece of mecha- nism, in which divinities dance and salaam in concert with a sort of mu- sical accompaniment. In the cellar below is an altar, and four statues of men in a sitting position, the peculiar objects of Jain idolatry. They are of white marble, but their eyes, which are of silver, gleam through the dim light of a solitary lamp in a dismal and ghostly manner. The senior pundit of the place remains here, ab- sorbed in contemplation, silent and motionless.

There is a library here supplied by the East-India Company for the use of the European soldiers. In 1824, among other works, it contained Pa- ley's Natural History, Goldsmith's Animated Nature, Pinkerton's Geo- graphy, an Atlas, the Indian Histories of Orme and Wilks, all the Waver- ley novels, besides books published by different societies for promoting Christian knowledge. In 1814 the convicts at this place, to the number of fifty-seven, rose on and assaulted their guard, with a view of effecting their escape, in attaining which ob- ject they evinced such determination, that nineteen were killed and twelve

suppressed. The remainder were recaptured unhurt. Many of these persons were imprisoned, but for short periods of time; and during the drought and famine the comforts of their situation excited the envy of many starving wretches perishing round the outside of the gaol.—(*Bishop Heber, Forbes, Ironside, &c.*)

KAIRABAD.—A village belonging to the Kotah raja, in the province of Malwa, situated in the open country to the south of the Mukundra pass, and about eleven miles from the village of that name; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 76° E. The country rises gradually from Mukundra to Kairabad, which stands amidst the rich black soil of Malwa, surrounded by cultivated fields and luxuriant crops of poppies. The Kotah territory extends six miles further south, and even beyond that limit Kotah villages are found mixed with those of Holkar.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

KAIRANA.—An old town in the province of Delhi, district of Meerut, the mangoe-trees of which were so famous, that their fruit was reserved exclusively for the imperial table, lat. 29° 33′ N.—(*Capt Hodgson, &c.*)

KAIRODEA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Odeypoor; lat 24° 35′ N., lon. 74° 6′ E.

KAITA.—A town in the Malwa province, which in 1820 contained 420 houses, sixteen miles N.N.W from Dewass; lat. 23° 1′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E. This place stands on the little Cali Sinde river, and was formerly a more considerable town.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KAKHERDA.—A district in the province of Gundwana, principality of Sumbhulpoor, of which it formerly occupied the north-western quarter.

KAKORA.—A town and castle in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the raja of Ooniara, ten miles N W. from Rampoora; lat. 26° 1′ N, lon. 75° 46′ E.

KAKREZE.—A district in the north-western quarter of Gujerat, which commences at the town of Oon, about fifteen miles north from Rahdunpoor. In 1809 the following were the principal towns, all belonging to Cooly chiefs, viz. Deodhur, Turrah, Scoree, Moondttah, Kakor, Oon, Bulgaum, Ranningpoor. To the north of Thirah, which may be considered the capital of the Kakreze, the country is cultivated, but interspersed with bushy jungle, and deficient in water, which is procured from wells (some of them brackish) forty feet in depth.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

KALANUDEE.—A subdivision of the Bejapoor province, situated, including the talook of Chundghur, N.W. and N.N.W. of Belgaum, from which they are separated by a slip of the Shahpoor territory, in which stands the hill-fort of Mypalghur. It is watered by several brooks, distinguished by the names of the principal villages on their banks, and whose waters ultimately join the Gutpurba.

The rock fort of Kalanudee, situated near the southern border of the talook, formerly belonged to the Bhoosla family, and has always been held of great importance. The language spoken is the Maharatta with scarcely any mixture of the Canarese. Being near the great western range of mountains, which attract the rains of the S.W. monsoon, the inhabitants endure their unmitigated violence for five months annually, besides a more moderate deluge for two months longer. The rivulets are swollen to streams, intercourse precluded, and the houses stowed with provision for four or five months, like ships going on a distant voyage. During this period they are mostly confined within doors, where they sit round a burning log. The top of Kalanudee hill is invisible during greater part of the S.W. monsoon, and its sepoy garrison live in a perpetual dense soaking mist. In such a climate the average of human life is necessarily much reduced, sixty years being the utmost verge, and even fifty-two rarely attained. Even cattle cannot support the in-

clemency of such a climate. Bullocks are few in number, and scarcely a goat or sheep is to be seen.

In A.D. 1820, the town of Kalanudee contained 2,020 persons, in 427 houses; Chandghur 2,410 persons, in 594 houses. About four-fifths of the inhabitants are Maharattas, the rest artizans, but there dwells not a single professional tailor within the limits of the two talooks. At a small village named Patna there is a little Christian chapel or mut (as it is named in the village records), which is endowed with its portion of land, exactly like any native religious establishment, evincing the general spirit of toleration, for which the Hindoos have always been remarkable.—(*T. Marshall, &c.*)

KALADEOGHAUT.—A pass leading through the Vindhya range of mountains in the province of Malwah, in the vicinity of which is a remarkable hill named also Kaladeo; lat. 22° 55′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E.

KALANY GUNGA RIVER.—A river in Ceylon which rises among the congeries of mountains of which Adam's Peak is the centre, and attains a great size considering the shortness of its course, hardly amounting to sixty miles. It is in consequence navigable for boats as far as Talygommua, which is three-fourths of its course. At its mouth, three miles north of Columbo, a great bank of sand has been thrown up by the waves having obstructed its progress, in consequence of which it has expanded to a sheet of water resembling a lake. Dr. Davy is of opinion that a good road between the navigable portion of the Kalany and that of the Mahavilly Gunga, fourteen miles from Candy, would be productive of great benefit to the Candian provinces.—(*Davy, &c.*)

KALATOA ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas about thirty-four miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller isles, on which the Ocean Indiaman was lost A.D. 1797; lat. 7° 15′ S., lon. 122° E.

KALBERGAH.—See CALBERGA.

KALEE NAG PEAK.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, thirty miles N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 52′ N., lon. 80° 6′ E.

KALI (*or Cali*) SINDE RIVER.—A river of Malwa which has its source in the Vindhya mountains, five miles south of Banglee, from whence it flows with a northerly course of about 140 miles until it joins the Chumbul. It is at no time navigable, but during the rains swells so much as to become unfordable.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KALINUDDY CANAL.—Two rivers of the same name (Kalinuddy) rise in the upper Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, in the province of Delhi and district of Saharunpoor. That which is best known joins the Ganges at Mendyghaut, and has its origin in a marsh at Itwara, between Jaurset and Kuttonly. It has a long course through a productive country, the fertility of which is increased by the use of its waters for the purposes of irrigation; but above Oocha, Shur, and Hempor the stream is frequently dried up during the hot months, at which season much benefit would accrue to the neighbouring lands could it be replenished.

The western Kalinuddy rises in some ravines to the south-west of Kewa, about twenty miles from the base of the hills, and passing near to Deobar and Muzuffernuggur, falls into the Hindan river at Tali, a village in the Begum Somroo's dominions. Both these rivers flow through rather elevated tracts in deep beds, so that at present their waters are not of much utility for irrigation. To render these applicable to this beneficial purpose, a native named Aboo, during the reign of one of the Mogul emperors, constructed two large dams across the streams near Furreedpoor, five miles below the confluence of the Kali and the Hindan, and thence made a cut passing Meerut to join the Eastern nullah, about four miles to the east of that town. According to tradition his object was accomplished, but the villagers in the neighbourhood of the bunds secretly undermined and des-

troyed them by night, as they overflowed their fields and injured the crops.

In 1823 it was proposed to renew this ancient work, and again unite the eastern and western Kalinuddies, combining with this object the opening of a channel of communication between the Jumna and the Ganges. The supplying of this extensive tract with moisture for irrigation is of the more importance, as the British government is still the chief proprietor of the rent of the soil through which the canal formerly conducted the waters.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

KALKOONS OR TURKEY ISLES.—A cluster of small rocky isles in the Eastern seas, surrounded by shoals innumerable, situated between the sixth and seventh degrees of south latitude, and 115th and 116th of east longitude.

KALOOKEREE.—A town in the Malwa province, the capital of a talook in the Birseah division belonging to the Solunkees It stands on a small nullah fourteen miles W.N.W. from the town of Birseah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KALPEE (*or Calpi*).—A large and populous town in the province of Agra, formerly the capital of a small state, situated on the S.W. bank of the Jumna, about forty miles S.W. from Cawnpoor; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 79° 41′ E. The modern town of Kalpee, a place of considerable trade, is an entrepôt for the transportation of cotton from the south-western territories, and noted for the manufacture of sugar-candy and paper. In former times it stood on the plain remote from the river: but in consequence of repeated Maharatta incursions, the inhabitants removed to its present more secure situation, among extensive ravines. There is a small fort here, built on a high bank, which completely commands the navigation of the Jumna; but although the site be naturally strong, the artificial defences are so ill arranged, that an enemy can approach undiscovered to within a few yards of the eastern face, where the wall is only fourteen feet high, supported behind by a thick parapet of earth.

The Mahomedans penetrated into this quarter about A.D. 1203, and in this neighbourhood was fought, in 1765, the first action between the British (under General Carnac) and the Maharattas. The latter came to the assistance of Shuja ud Dowlah, but after a weak resistance were totally routed, and compelled to recross the Jumna with the utmost precipitation. In 1804, among the dependents on the Peshwa's government was Nana Govind Row of Kalpee, whose valuable district of Mahoba lay in the centre of Bundelcund, and had not been conquered by Ali Bahadur. It was nevertheless seized by Raja Himmut Bahauder, as part of his jaidad under the British, which induced the Kalpee chief to unite his forces with Shumshere Bahauder in opposition to the British. In consequence of this conduct the fort and district of Kalpee, and some other lands on the northern frontier of Bundelcund, which had been held by Nana Govind Row as tributary of the Peshwa, were occupied by the British troops; but by a subsequent arrangement were all returned to him except Kalpee, which along with its district, in 1806, he permanently ceded to the British government, for an adequate equivalent in Bundelcund and elsewhere. Travelling distance from Lucknow twenty-eight miles; from Agra 160; from Benares 239; and from Calcutta 699 miles.—(*MSS., Twemlow, Treaties, &c.*)

KALSEE.—A town in Northern Hindostan, the chief mart of all the country lying between the Sutuleje and Tonse rivers, to which merchandize is also brought from Gurwal and Bussaher; lat. 30° 32′ N., lon. 77° 50′ E. In 1816 government ordered a serai to be built here, and established a proper ferry-boat on the Tonse, a hollow trunk of a tree having previously been the substitute.—(*Buch, &c.*)

KALUNGA (*or Nalapani*).—A military post fortified by the Gorkhas in Northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, situated on the verge of a lo-

ridge of hills about two and a half miles N.E. from the town of Deyrah, the capital of the doon or valley, and surrounded on all sides by jungle; lat. 30° 20′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E., seventy-five miles east by north from Serinagur. Elevation above the level of the sea 3,286 feet. This was a small miserable stone castle occupied by a Gorkha garrison, and owes its celebrity entirely to the two bloody repulses experienced here by the British troops in 1814, under General Gillespie and Colonel Manby; in which more men and officers were lost than in many pitched battles. Since the conquest of the Deyrah Doon, the works of Kalunga have been so entirely razed that it is now difficult to trace its site.—(*Fullarton, James Fraser, Hodgson, Herbert, &c.*)

KAMAKHYA.—A celebrated temple, or rather the remains of one, dedicated to the goddess Kamakhya, which Capt. Wood, of the Bengal engineers, places in lat. 26° 36′ N., lon. 92° 56′ E.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

KAMAL.—A small town in the island of Madura, ten miles distant from Bancallan, and directly opposite to Sourabhaya in Java; lat. 7° 10′ N., lon. 112° 43′ E.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

KAMPELL.—A village in the province of Malwa, district of Indore, of which it was the capital prior to the ascendancy of the present Maharatta dynasty. In 1820 it contained 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KAMPTI.—A town, or rather cantonment, in the province of Gundwana, and immediate vicinity of the city of Nagpoor, where a large proportion of the British subsidiary forces are usually stationed.

KANACHITTY.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, situated in the midst of a well-cultivated country, twenty-seven miles N.W. from Calcutta.

KANARAK (*or the black pagoda*).—An ancient village in the province of Orissa, situated amidst sand-hills on the sea-shore, eighteen miles north of Juggernauth. Here are the remains of an ancient temple of the sun, call in European charts the Black Pagoda. The anti-chamber is the only part of the building that still exists in good preservation, the great tower having been shattered and thrown down by lightning, earthquake, or some other extraordinary force. A small section, however, about 120 feet high, still continues erect, which gives the ruin at a distance the appearance of a ship under sail. It has been long deserted. It was built in A.D. 1241, by Raja Nursing Deo Langora, and is said to have possessed, long ago, a loadstone of such size and strength, that it attracted to the shore all the vessels passing along the coast.

The anti-chamber (or jugmohun) is constructed of prodigious blocks of stone and massive beams of iron. The ground plan is sixty feet of a side, and the walls rise to the height of sixty feet, and in some parts have a thickness of twenty feet. They support a curiously-constructed pyramidical roof, the stones of which overhang each other until they approach near enough to support iron beams laid across, on which rests an enormous mass of masonry forming the crowning ornament. The total altitude of the building from the floor to the summit is about 100 feet. The architecture of the door, and the roof of the passage, a prodigious weight of masonry, are supported by nine iron beams laid across, nearly a foot square, and from twelve to eighteen feet long, and the whole fabric is held together by iron clamps. The interior is filled with large blocks of stone that appear to have fallen from above, and crushed two iron beams eight inches square and twenty-one feet long; indeed the whole edifice is one of the most remarkable and indescribable to be met with in India.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

KANARY ISLES.—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, lying off the northern coast of Mysol, about the 130th degree of east longitude.

They are covered with trees, but uninhabited. Good water may be had at the south end of the great Kanary. These islands produce a species of nut full of oil, and as large as a small almond.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

KANDAR.—A frontier town in Assam, situated on the north bank of the Brahmaputra, opposite to Goalpara in Bengal; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 90° 40′ E. At this place, in 1810, there was a custom-house, where duties were collected on all goods entering Assam.

KANGELANG ISLE.—An irregularly-shaped island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, and innumerable shoals, situated between the sixth and seventh degrees of south latitude, and the 115th and 116th of east longitude. The length of the principal island may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by eight the average breadth.

KANGRA (*Khonkara*).—An ancient town and district in the Kohistan or hilly country of the Lahore province, and variously named Kote Kangrah and Nagorcote. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows:—" Nagorcote is a city placed on a high mountain with a fort named Kangrau. In the vicinity of this city, upon a lofty mountain, is a place named Maha Maya, which they (the Hindoos) consider as one of the works of the divinity, and come in pilgrimage to it from great distances. It is most wonderful, that in order to effect this they cut out their tongues, which grow again in the course of two or three days, and sometimes in a few hours. Physicians believe that when the tongue is cut out it will grow again; but nothing short of a miracle can effect it so speedily as is here mentioned."

The fortress of Kangra (or Cote Kangrah), is situated in lat. 32° 15′ N., lon. 76° 8′ E., ninety miles N.E. from Amritsir. The town of Kangra is an open one, and before the attack of the Gorkhas under Ammer Singh, contained 2,000 houses. In the neighbourhood stood the famous Hindoo temple above described, which was of great celebrity when the Mahomedans first invaded Hindostan, and which retains a sanctified reputation. By the Hindoos it is named Jwala Mukhi. The emperor Acber accomplished the reduction of this fort after a siege of a whole year, during which time he commanded in person. Although most parts of the Kangra country are high, the ascents from the plains below are not precipitous, and the summits of the hills being level, a large proportion is fit for cultivation, and in consequence occupied. There is plenty of sugar-cane, which is symptomatic of a warm climate, and rice is so abundant as to admit of its being transported to Lahore; the poor live chiefly on maize. None of the original unconverted tribes remain; the Jaut is said to be the most numerous.

Kangra was blockaded by the Gorkhas under Ammer Singh from 1807 to 1810, when they were compelled to raise the siege by the advance of Raja Runjeet Singh, who received the best district of Kangra, as a recompense for his assistance, from Raja Sunsar Chund, the reigning Kangra raja, who in 1820 resided at Shahjehanpoor. At that date Gholaum Mahomed, the Rohillah who fought against Sir Robert Abercrombie in 1794, served in the pay of the Kangra Raja.—(*Foster, F. Buchanan, Sir D. Ochterlony, Moorcroft, &c.*)

KANKEROWLY.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty miles from Odeypoor. At this place there is a lake partly natural and partly artificial, the magnificent dams of which are built of a species of marble found in the vicinity.

KANKHUL.—A large and handsome town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, three miles S.S.W. from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 56′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E., elevation above the level of the sea 1,032 feet. At this place many wealthy natives have permanent residences and gardens.

Kanoje (*Canyacubja*).—A town in the province of Agra, of great antiquity and celebrity, situated west of the Ganges, about sixty-five miles W.N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 4′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E. The river Ganges is now about two miles distant, but a canal has been cut, which makes a bend towards Kanoje, and brings the sacred stream close to the citadel. The town consists at present of one street, but for an extent of six miles; the mixture of small pieces of brick and occasional vestiges of a building, point out the site of the ancient capital of Hindostan. Here are the tombs of two Mahomedan saints, and there are, besides, the beautiful ruins of the shrine of Mucdoom, Jehaneea, and of two venerable mosques. All these buildings are of stone, and still tolerably entire; but they are all of Mussulman origin, for of the ancient Hindoo city there remains no architectural memorial, unless it be the walls of a small and rude pagoda lately roofed in, and the interior adorned with two extraordinary images of Lakshmi and Rama, surrounded by the Hindoo pantheon in miniature, dug up from among the adjacent rubbish. At a short distance to the north is a noble serai named Meerun, from its founder, and on the opposite side of the road is a handsome modern mausoleum, where rests the body of this benevolent person.

Kanoje in the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity was a place of great renown, and the capital of a powerful empire, that existed at the period of the Mahomedan invasion. The name Canyacubja (abbreviated to Kanoje), signifying kanya, a damsel, and cubja a spinal curve, and refers to a well-known story narrated in the Hindoo mythological poems. The ancient language of Kanoje appears to have formed the ground-work of the modern Hindostany, known also by the names of Hindi and Hindui. Rajas of Kanoje are mentioned by Ferishta as early as A.D. 1008, and it was conquered, although not permanently retained, by Mahmood of Ghizni in 1018. It has been long fallen from its high estate, and at present the ruins of this once magnificent city, the quantity of jungle by which it is surrounded, and the deep intersecting ravines, are only noted as facilitating the commission of crimes, and afterwards furnishing a place of refuge for the perpetrators. Travelling distance from Agra 217; from Lucknow 75; from Delhi 214; and from Calcutta 719 miles. — (*Colebrooke, Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Ramayuna, &c.*)

Kannagherry (*Khanaghiri*). — A town in the province of Bejapoor, nineteen miles N. by W. from Bijanagur; lat. 15° 36′ N., lon. 76° 26′ E. This is a place of considerable note, and formerly the capital of a Hindoo principality, though many of its buildings are now gone to decay. The principal street is remarkably spacious, and traverses the city from east to west. At one extremity is a magnificent pagoda dedicated to Krishna, enclosed by a square of buildings containing cells, and approached by three entrances surmounted by pyramidical gateways, in the Carnatic style, and in dimensions much surpassing the sanctuary. The walls and ceilings are covered in many parts with a profusion of devices in stucco, representing the adventures of Krishna and other deities; and some of them, although above a century old, in tolerably good preservation, and executed with considerable spirit. There are likewise several other temples within the walls, now mostly converted into dwelling-houses or stables by the Mussulman inhabitants, and the neighbourhood abounds with fragments of Hindoo sculpture and monuments.

Kannagherry is beautifully situated in a valley between two wooded ridges, and encompassed on two sides by the rocky bed of a rivulet. It belongs to the Nizam, whose soubahdar resides here. This town and the adjacent districts are very inaccurately laid down in the best maps.— (*Fullarton, &c.*)

Kanoura.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles N.W. from [illegible]; lat. 24° 16′ N., lon. 79° [illegible] E.

Kandotta.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, eleven miles S.W. from the city of Jeypoor. This place is mostly built of stone, and contains several temples, one of which, dedicated to [illegible] Seeta, is curiously adorned with mythological paintings.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Kantul (*a border*).—The name of an ancient district, at present comprehended in the modern provinces of Malwa and Gujerat. On the north it is bounded by Mewar; on the south by Bagur; to the east it has Mundessor, and on the west Banswara. In length it is about fifty-four miles, and in breadth from twelve to twenty-six miles. It is a fine level country, elevated above Bagur, from whence there is an ascent. All the streams run into the Mahy, which flows at a short distance from the southern frontier. Its productions are the same as the rest of Malwa, and the trade principally a transit one, from Malwa, Mewar, and Upper Hindostan, to Gujerat, Cattywar, and Cutch, by the Doongurpoor and [illegible] passes. The chief town is [illegible], the residence of a Rajpoot prince, to whom the territory belongs; but he also possesses a small tract above the ghauts.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kanum.—A substantial village in the [illegible] district, in Northern Hindostan, situated on the right bank of the [illegible], and producing abundance of excellent grapes; lat. [illegible] N., lon. [illegible] E.; elevation above the sea [illegible] feet.—(*Hodgson, Herbert, &c.*)

Kapini Isle.—A small uninhabited island, about twenty-five miles in circumference, lying off the west coast of [illegible], and situated nearly under the equator. It is also named [illegible], or Ironwood Island.

Kapiny River.—A river in the south of India, which has its source among the ghauts of the Wynaad country, and after traversing the southern quarter of the Mysore province, falls into the Cavery, about twenty miles below Seringapatam.

Karajee.—A small town in the province of Bejapoor, forty-five miles N.E. from Murritch; lat. 17° 26′ N., lon. 75° 38′ E. In this place there are a considerable number of Mahomedans, who subsist chiefly on alms, in a state of sloth and filth. These Mussulman devotees, although the most intolerant on the face of the earth, crave and take charity from all religions.—(*Moor, &c.*)

Karakeeta Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated to the south of Sangir; lat. 3° 7′ N., lon. 125° 25′ E. It is cultivated and inhabited.

Karang Sambong.—In inland town in the island of Java, on the road from Buitenzorg to Cheribon, and 168 miles travelling distance E.S.E. from Batavia; lat. 6° 48′ S., lon. 108° 15′ E. It stands on a fine river navigable for prows, which runs through Indramayo into the sea.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Kardeh Doon (*or valley*).—A tract of country in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Jumna and town of Nahan, and retained by the British government after the expulsion of the Gorkhas, principally on account of its importance in a military point of view, for it is so pestilentially unhealthy, that the inhabitants are compelled to migrate during the rainy season. The soil, though unhealthy, is good, and pushes forth such luxuriant crops of long, rank, woody grass, that if the cultivators retire for a few months, they find on their return all traces of their former labours overgrown with jungle. A considerable emolument, however, is derived from the admission of cattle to pasture. It is understood that the Kardeh Doon was formerly well peopled and cultivated, and it is probable its present insalubrity has been

created by its neglected condition, and the consequent growth of jungle. In 1815 the total number of houses in this valley was 280, and these contained only 606 inhabitants. The temple at Nahan possesses considerable tracts of land here indeed; there is scarcely a part of the Sirmore territory that has not been rendered more or less tributary to that sacred edifice. — (*Public MS. Documents, Captain Birch, &c.*)

KARICAL (*Caricala*).—A town in the Carnatic, district of Tanjore, eight miles south from Tranquebar; lat. 10° 55′ N., lon. 79° 53′ E. In the Carnatic wars from 1740 to 1763 it was a place of importance and strongly fortified, and it still occupies a considerable space along the beach, but is entirely stripped of its fortifications. It has the Karical river and another smaller branch of the Cavery to the south. The surrounding country produces abundance of rice, and salt is an article of export from hence. —(*Orme, Fullarton, &c.*)

KARINJAH.— A town belonging to the Nizam, in the province of Hyderabad, sixty miles S. by E. from Ellichpoor; lat. 20° 28′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

KARJANG.—A village north of the Himalaya, in the district of Kunawar; lat. 31° 36′ N., lon. 78° 26′ E. This is the first village proceeding from the south, following the course of the Sutuleje, where the Tartar language and superstitions are found to prevail. Here Brahmins, even degenerate ones, cease to appear, and a lama stands forth as the spiritual instructor of the community, the doctrines of Buddha having gained and retained the ascendant. Immediately behind Karjang rise the Raldang lofty peaks, visible from Saharunpoor, and designated Cailas by the village Lama. They stand in lat. 31° 29′ N., lon. 78° 22′ E., and are elevated 21,251 feet above the level of the sea.

KARNATA. — An ancient Hindoo geographical division, which comprehended all the high table-land in the south of India situated above the Ghauts. In modern times, by a strange fatality, it has lost its proper designation, which has been transferred to the adjacent provinces on the sea-coast, under the names of Carnatic and Canara. In remote periods of Hindoo history Karnata existed as a powerful empire, which comprehended a large portion of the south of India; and in the eighth century of the Christian era is ascertained to have been governed by the Bellala Rayas, at which time Belagami, in Mysore, is said to have been the capital, and the Jain the prevalent religion.

The common Canara or Karnatica characters are used by the natives of all the countries, from Coimbatoor north to Balky, near Beeder, and within the parallels from the eastern ghauts to the western. This region comprehends the modern division of Mysore, Sera, Upper Bednore, Soonda, Goa, Adoni, Rachoor, Kurnoul, the Doab of the Krishna, and Toombudra, and a considerable part of the provinces of Bejapoor and Beeder, as far as the source of the Krishna; the junction of three languages, the Telinga, the Maharatta and the Karnataca, [illegible] somewhere about the city of Beeder in the Deccan. The Haiga Brahmins in Canara, consider the Karnataca as their proper tongue, and all accounts or inscriptions on stone, whether in the vulgar language or in Sanscrit, are written in the Karnataca character, which is nearly the same with the Andra or old writing of Telingana. In a specimen of the Lord's Prayer translated into that language, sixteen of the words can be traced as being the same with those used in the Bengalese, although much disguised by difference of termination.—(*Colonel Mackenzie, F. Buchanan, Wilks, Rennell, Colebrooke, &c.*)

KAROO RIVER.—A river in the province of Gundwana, which rises in Kakair, and passing Ryepoor, joins the Sew, not far from Singah. It is

navigable during the rains, and as an experiment, Colonel Agnew brought some supplies that had arrived at Simgah, from Calcutta, up this stream to Ryepoor.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

KAROULI (*Keruli*).—A chiefship in the province of Agra, lying south-west of Dholpoor and Barree, and north-west of Gohud and the Chumbul river. The town stands on the Pushperee, a stream with high perpendicular banks, which during the rainy season swells to a torrent, and on the other side is almost surrounded by deep ravines. The fort is in the centre of the town, and encompassed by a good stone wall with bastions. The raja springs from the Jadoo tribe, which formerly reigned at Biana. The most productive portion of his territory is a narrow valley, which extends thirty miles to the Banass river, and is scarcely a mile broad; the total revenues about two lacks of rupees per annum. Raja Manick Pal died in 1805, and was succeeded by a boy of thirteen, who, in December 1817, put himself under the protection of the British government, and was in consequence exonerated from the tribute which he had been accustomed to pay to the Peshwa. The town of Karouli is in lat. 26° 32′ N., lon. 76° 55′ E., and about seventy-five miles S.W. from Agra.—(*Broughton, Metcalfe, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

KAROULY.—A considerable village with a serai, in the province of Agra, situated about fifteen miles west from the city of Agra, on the road to Futtehpoor Sikra.

KARRABAUGH (*Khsharabag, the salt garden*).—A town in Afghanistan, situated on the west bank of the Indus, seventy-five miles south from Peshawer; lat. 33° 4′ N., lon. 71° 17′ E. At this place the Indus is contracted by mountains into a deep channel, only 350 yards broad. These mountains have an abrupt descent to the river, and a road is cut along the base for above two miles; but it is so narrow, and the rock over it so steep, that a loaded camel cannot pass; to obviate which, large packages are carried past Karabaugh by water. The first part of this pass is actually overhung by the town, built in a curious manner along the face of the hill, every street rising above its neighbour. The road beyond the town is cut out of the solid rock-salt, at the base of cliffs of the same substance, which in some places rise more than 100 feet above the river. Were it not streaked and tinged with red, this saline fossil would resemble crystal. In several spots salt springs issue from the foot of the rocks, and cover the ground with a crust of the most brilliant whiteness. All the earth, more especially in the immediate vicinity, is almost blood-red, which, with the strange and beautiful mass of salt-rocks, and the far-travelled Indus flowing through the mountains with a deep clear stream, presents altogether a most imposing spectacle. Near the town are piles of salt in large blocks, like quarry-stones, lying ready for transportation to Hindostan and Khorasan. The plain of Karabaugh belongs to the Eesau Khail tribe. It is watered by small conduits, of about four feet broad and as many deep, and is naturally fertile.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

KASKI.—One of the twenty-four rajahships in Northern Hindostan, now comprehended in the Nepaulese dominions; lat. 28° 14′ N., lon. 83° 50′ E., forty-two miles N.W. from Gorkha. Although adjacent to the regions covered with perpetual snow, the southern parts are said to be rather warmer than the valley of Nepaul Proper; but the tracts close to the snowy peaks were formerly (and probably still are) inhabited by Bhooteas and some Gurungs. The warmer tracts are said to be occupied by Brahmins, Khassyes, and low tribes, exercising the occupations of artizans. The chiefs possess some copper mines; and besides the capital, according to native accounts, there is a considerable mart named Pokhara, much frequented by traffickers from Nepaul, Palpa, and Malebum.

The modern capital, named Buttolachoor, is situated among the hills on the river Seti.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

KATCHRODE.—A considerable town in Malwa, the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, and possessing a large and well supplied bazar; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 75° 20′ E., 1,638 feet above the level of the sea. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KATTRAGAM.—A small village in Ceylon, district of Lower Ouva, situated on the left bank of the Parapa Oya river, — miles from Dondra Head; lat. 6° 23′ N., lon. 81° 32′ E. This place derives its celebrity from its temple, which formerly attracted pilgrims, not only from different quarters of Ceylon, but also from remote parts of the continent. At present it is in a state of most rapid decay, and will probably soon disappear altogether.—(*Davy, &c.*)

KAUKORFE.—A village in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Gaulna (which belongs to the British government) and fourteen miles S.W. from the town of Gaulna. The surrounding country is fertile; and goor, or coarse sugar, is manufactured in the village.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KAUNAR.—A town in the province of Malwa, ten miles from Auggin, which in 1820 contained 400 houses, and belonged to Sindia.

KAUNWEH.—A large ruinous village in the province of Agra, principality of Bhurtpoor, twenty-eight miles W.S.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 4′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E. This place stands on a base of grey granite, which protrudes itself from the red soil and red rock of the neighbourhood. On the top of it is a small mosque; and a great majority of the inhabitants, although in the midst of a Hindoo country, are Mahomedans. The houses are of red sand-stone, and several of them supported internally by many small pillars, and roofed with large stone slabs, laid from one pillar to the other, wood being scarce and dear.

The wells in this country, some of which are very deep, are constructed by the natives in the following manner. They build a tower of masonry of the diameter required, and from twenty to thirty feet high from the surface of the ground. This they allow to stand a year or more, until its masonry is consolidated by time; after which they gradually undermine and promote its sinking into the sandy soil, which it does without difficulty, all in a mass. When level with the surface, they raise the wall higher, and go on throwing out the sand and raising the wall, until they have reached the water. If they adopted the common European method of sinking wells, the soil is so light, that it would fall in on the workers before they could raise a wall from the bottom; nor without the wall could they sink to any considerable depth. From hence to Phersa, all within the Bhurtpoor territories, much good cultivation is seen of grain, cotton, and, what in India is a sure proof of good circumstances, sugar.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

KAYNS (*Khien or Kieaans*).—In the intermediate space between Bengal, Arracan, and Cassay, is an extensive, woody, and mountainous tract, occupied by many rude tribes. The most distinguished among these are termed by the Burmese, Kayns; but by themselves, Koloun; and many, after the conquest of Arracan by the Burmese, were influenced or compelled to quit the mountains and settle in the low country. The Kayn mountains are of considerable extent and elevation, stretching from the twelfth to the nineteenth degree of north latitude. They appear to be one of the aboriginal tribes of Ultra-Gangetic India by various stages of civilization, and scattered, under various denominations, over the whole south-eastern extremity of the Asiatic continent.

The tribe of Kayns best known are those that inhabit the hills that bound Arracan to the eastward, their country having been marched through by

British detachment, on its way from he Irawady river to Amherst harour, in Arracan. Of these some eside in fixed habitations, while thers are migratory and unsettled. The cultivators are quiet and inoffenive; the mountaineers savage and redatory. The first pay taxes, and re liable to serve in the Burmese rmies; the last live in the jungles, nd reject all intercouse with civilized nan. They have a tradition that heir ancestors possessed Ava, until riven to the wilds and mountains of Ava, Siam. Cochin-China, and China, y a horde of Tartars from the north. n fact, they appear to belong to the ame aboriginal race as the Carrians, ookies, Cosseahs, &c. Their weaons are a spear, axe, cross-bow, and oisoned arrows. Their chief articles f traffic are iron ore, honey, dried sh, and a species of cloth which their emales fabricate from wild silk and old cotton. Their dialect is said o be peculiar.

As may be supposed, their notions f religion are very rude. They do ot appear to have any idea of a upreme Being, but have many gloser objects of adoration, more especially a thick bushy tree, under which hey sacrifice pigs and oxen; they lso worship the thunderbolt stone, which they dig for where lightning as struck, and when found, preserve as a talisman. The Passine, who ts the part of priest, soothsayer, rophet, conjuror, and doctor, is the ost influential person in the community. They partly profess the octrine of transmigration, yet sacrice and eat their cattle without compunction or remorse of conscience. When a Kayn dies the event is condered joyful (too wise to be true), d celebrated with eating, drinking, d dancing. The rich, when dead, e burned, and their ashes carried baskets to the great mountain Keungnaryne, in the Arracan range, hich sanctuary the Birmans have ever invaded. The females of this ibe have their faces tattooed all ver in lines, mostly describing segents of circles, which give them a most hideous appearance.—(*Trant, Symes, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Kaunwun.—A small town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Budnawur, which in 1820 contained 200 houses, and belonged to the principality of Dhar: lat. 22° 52′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E.

Kautcote.—A town in the province of Malwa, which formerly contained 2,000 houses; but in 1820 that number was reduced to seventy-five. In the neighbourhood iron ore, yielding about twenty-five per cent. of metal, is abundant.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kautery.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, seventy-six miles north from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 27° 59′ N., lon. 75° 34′ E.

Keawud.—A town belonging to Sindia, in the province of Ajmeer, situated in a valley, watered by a fine stream; five miles S.E. from Rampoora.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kedar Kanta.—A peak of the mountain ridge in Northern Hindostan, that separates the Tonse and Jumna rivers, elevated 12,689 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 1′ N., lon. 78° 9′ E.

Kedarnath (*Kedara natha*).—A Hindoo temple among the Himalaya mountains, sixty-one miles N.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 55′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E. This place lies about fifteen miles direct distance to the W.N.W. of Bhadrinath; but the intermediate hills are inaccessible from snow, so that travellers are obliged to take a circuitous route by the way of Josimath. By the time the journey to Kedarnath is completed, Bhadrinath is ready to receive visitors, who having paid their devotions, return by the way of the Nanda and Carna Prayagas, and thus conclude the grand circle of pilgrimage. The sacred object of worship here is a misshapen mass of black rock, supposed to resemble the hind quarters of a buffaloe, regarding which a most absurd legend is narrated by the officiating priests. The sins of the flesh may also be expiated by self-sacrifice.

In effecting this, the devotee is conducted to the gorge of a snowy defile, where they quit him, leaving instructions to proceed forward until he reaches a tremendous precipice, over which he is directed to leap. When Capt. Webb visited Kedarnath in 1818, he found there three females, who, quite recently, had the desperate resolution to go in search of the precipice, but in vain; indeed its existence is probably a mere fable. One of them died immediately on her return; another was likely to survive, but with the loss of both hands and one foot; the extremities of the third were in such a state of mortification, that a speedy death was all she could wish for.

Aghora is a name of the deity Siva, and the Aghora Panties are a kind of mendicants, suspected of many strange practices, and amongst others, of cannibalism. According to Hindoo notions, when these devotees set out on this northern expedition, they first receive an incantation (named Aghora mantra) from their spiritual guide, to enable them to reach Kedarnath. Here they are supplied with a second incantation, which assists them to reach a temple, sixteen miles beyond Kedarnath, where they receive a third, of such potency, that they are enabled to brave the frost and precipices, and reach Cailasa, the residence of their deity.—(*Webb, Raper, Ward, &c.*)

Kedgeree (*Kijari*).—A village and bazar in the province of Bengal, situated at the mouth of the Hooghly river, which here expands to a breadth of almost nine miles across; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 88° 16′ E. This is a much healthier station than Diamond Harbour, and ships of war, unless compelled by strong reasons, should never go higher up the river. A naval officer, on the part of government, resides here, who makes daily reports of the ships that arrive and sail, and a light-house has been erected a few miles further down. During the rainy season ships are sometimes detained here a long time by the freshes of the river. On shore the country is a low, swampy, salt morass, and particularly deadly to European constitutions. Many tropical fruits and other refreshments are to be procured here.

Kedu.—The name of a district in the island of Java, containing 826 square miles, and according to a census taken in 1815 by the British government, 197,310 inhabitants, of whom 1,139 were Chinese.

Keelan Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about twenty miles in circumference, lying off the western extremity of Ceram; lat. 3° 15′ S., lon. 127° 55′ E. This island is inhabited, and well planted with cocoanut and plantain trees.

Keernoor.—A considerable village, with a Hindoo temple of respectable appearance, in the Carnatic province, district of Trichinopoly, and about eighteen miles S. by E. from the fortress of Trichinopoly.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Keeamber.—A town belonging to Sindia in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Narghur; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 75° 20′ E., seven miles N.N.W. from Seetamow. In 1820 it contained 500 houses.

Keerpoy.—A town in Bengal, the seat of a commercial residency, which in 1814 contained 10,525 inhabitants; lat. 22° 46′N., lon. 87° 44′ E., fifty miles W.N.W. from Calcutta. The ancient kingdom of Orissa formerly comprehended Keerpoy and the adjacent country west of the Hooghly.

Keetah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles north from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 31′ N., lon. 79° 30′ E.

Keffing Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas about forty-five miles in circumference, separated from the south-eastern extremity of the island of Ceram by a narrow strait; lat. 3° 50′ S., lon. 130° E.

Keirpany.—A town in the province of Malwa belonging to the Bri-

tish government, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, thirteen miles west of Sacur. At this place there is a ghaut of easy descent, fordable in December.

KELAT (*Killat, the fortress*).—The capital of Baloochistan, and residence of its sovereign; lat. 29° 8′ N., lon. 65° 50′ E. This place stands on an elevated site on the western side of a well cultivated valley, the greater part of which is laid out in gardens. The town has the form of an oblong square, three sides of which are encompassed by a mud wall eighteen feet high, flanked at intervals of 250 paces by bastions, which, like the wall, are pierced with loop-holes for matchlocks; but there are no cannon, and the works generally are in a ruinous condition. The defence on the fourth side is effected by cutting off perpendicularly the western face of the hill, on which eminence stands the khan's palace. In 1810 the number of houses within the walls exceeded 2,500; and in the suburbs there were about half that number, built of half-burned bricks on wooden frames; the upper stories reaching almost across the streets. The inhabitants consist of Baloochies (or Brahooees) Hindoos, Afghans, and Dehwars. The Hindoos are principally mercantile speculators from Mooltan and Shekarpoor, who occupy above 400 of the best houses, and are not only tolerated in their religion, but also allowed to levy a duty on goods entering the city for the support of their pagoda. They do not, however, venture to bring their wives and families to Kelat, their usual practice being to visit their native place once in four or five years. These degenerate votaries of Brahma eat every kind of flesh-meat except beef, drink water out of a leathern bag, and wear Bokhara-skin caps, all flagrant breaches of the faith they profess. Their dialect is the Panjabee, in which character their accounts are kept.

The city of Kelat is at present, and has been for many generations, the capital of the adjacent districts and provinces, although subjected to a most rigorous winter, when the snow lies, even in the vallies, from the end of November to the beginning of February. Its total elevation above the level of the sea has been roughly estimated at 8,000 feet, but this probably exceeds the reality. Rice, and other vegetable productions that require a warm climate, cannot be raised here, and wheat and barley do not ripen so soon as in Britain. The gardens round Kelat, mostly planted by Nassir Khan, produce a great variety of fruit, among which may be enumerated apricots, peaches, grapes of different kinds, almonds, pistachio-nuts, apples of many sorts, pears, plums, currants, cherries, quinces, figs, pomegranates, mulberries, plantains, melons, and guavas. (*Pottinger, Christie, &c.*)

KELLAMBIR.—A village on the island of Sumatra, situated on the banks of the Bulu China river, and thus named from the abundance of coco-nuts.

KELLYNELLYCOTTA.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, twenty miles south from the town of Tanjore; lat. 10° 17′ N., lon. 79° 12′ E.

KELLAMANGALUM (*Killa Mangalam, the prosperous fort*).—A small town in the district ceded by the Mysore government, and annexed to the Barramahal; lat. 12° 35′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E.

KELPOORY (*Kelapuri*).—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, about forty-five miles N. by E. from the city of Bareily; lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 79° 35′ E.

KEN RIVER (*or Cane*).—A river of Bundlecund which rises in lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 80° 8′ E. from a range of hills near the Mohar river, and proceeds with a northerly course, until it falls into the Jumna at Chelatara, after a course of 230 miles. It is too rocky to be rendered navigable, but contains fine fish and beautiful pebbles.

Major Rennell thinks this is the Cainas or Cane of Pliny; in modern maps, the name is written Cane and Keane.—(*Capt. Franklin, &c.*)

Kenneri.—A collection of remarkable caverns excavated in the island of Salsette, one of which was fitted up by the Portuguese for a church, and they consequently thought it their duty to deface all the most Pagan-looking sculptures. At present the fine teak ribs for supporting the roof are almost gone, and the portico is not so elegant as that of Carli. On the sides are two gigantic figures, each twenty-five feet high, standing erect with their hands close to their bodies, which resemble the figures of Buddha seen in Ceylon. On each side of the great cave are smaller ones, apparently unfinished, and in the rock above are numerous cells, reservoirs, and other excavations tier over tier. The excavations here resemble those of Carli and some at Elora, and present the most perfect specimens of a genuine Buddhist temple, college, and monastery to be found in India. On one of the pillars of the portico of the great cave here is an inscription, in a character different both from the Nagari and the popular running-hand, which the Brahmins have never been able to decypher. There are other caves like those of Kenneri on Salsette, at Monpezier and Ambowlee, but smaller and less interesting. — (*Fullarton, Erskine, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Keonthul (*or Kyonthal*).—A small chiefship in Northern Hindostan, one of the Barra Thakooria, or twelve lordships, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna rivers, and extending along the first. It contains the fortresses of Subathoo, Punta, Jaraha, Gurjurree, and Hindoor, all of which, except the first, were dismantled by the Gorkhas. After the expulsion of that tribe by the British in 1814, this territory was made over to the Seik Raja of Pattiallah for a certain sum. In 1815 the total revenue was estimated at 40,000 rupees per annum. Here, as in most parts between the Sutuleje and Jumna, it is usual for the husband to purchase his wife from her parents, the cost being from ten to twenty rupees. The difficulty of raising this paltry sum is said to be such, that it is usual for the brothers of a family to club together for the purchase of a female, who becomes the wife of all: but we are not informed what becomes of the surplus females, for polygamy, except with the very richest chiefs, is too expensive to be practised.—(*Lieut. Ross, Jas. Frazer, &c.*)

Kergapoor.—A town in the province of Allahabad, ten miles N.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 50′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E.

Kerie.—A village in the province of Delhi, formerly fortified with a ghurry, sixteen miles N.E. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 3′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E.

Keroor.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Darwar, which in 1820 contained 368 houses and 3,110 persons.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

Ketee.—A town in the province of Mooltan, which in 1809 belonged to Meer Thara, one of the chiefs of Sinde. It was then said to be as large as Corachie, and situated on an island formed by the Indus.

Keutee.—A fort and village in the province of Allahabad, division of Rewah, about seventy miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. The castle here is a stone building, most picturesquely situated on the margin of a tremendous chasm, formed by the cataract of the Mabana. On an insular point of rock that separates the stream of the Mabana into two channels, and projects over the abyss below, there is an old Hindoo temple, near to which are some small hermitages, the haunts of gossains. This, like the Rewah cataract, is remarkable for the numerous flights of wild pigeons, which are seen continually flying about in front of the descending torrent, and seemingly

delighted with the coolness of the spray.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Keys Isles.—Three isles in the Eastern seas, of considerable extent, situated about the 133d degree of eastern longitude and between the fifth and sixth degrees of northern latitude. They are named Key Watela, little and great Key islands, but respecting them nothing is known beyond their geographical situation.

Keynduem River (*or Khyndowan*).—A river of Ava, which has its source in the Assam mountains to the south of the Brahmaputra, from whence it flows almost due south (passing to the east of Munipoor) until it joins the Irawady nearly opposite to Yandaboo, but without any imposing effect. In the upper part of its course it is named *the Ningti. Both rivers in the dry* season are here confined within narrow beds, and the tongue of land which separates them is low and so covered with reeds, that it may be easily mistaken for an island, and consequently the smaller river for a branch of the larger. On the 16th December 1825, when passed by the British embassy, the Keynduem appeared but a petty stream, not exceeding 200 yards in breadth; indeed, the Irawady had diminished to a breadth of one-quarter of a mile; but after their union they again expand to three-fourths of a mile. The fall of this river between September and the above date appeared to have been at least twenty feet.—*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Keytone.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, eleven miles east by south from Kotah; lat. 25° 11′ N., lon. 75° 54′ E.

Keykra,—A town in the province of Ajmeer, forty-five miles S.E. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 1′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E.

Khachi. — Formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships in Northern Hindostan, but now subject to the Nepaulese. The town of Khachi stands upon a hill plentifully supplied with water, in lat. 28° 1′ N., lon. 82° 50′ E., 100 miles west from Gorkha. It is said to contain 300 houses, mostly thatched, besides the chief's house which is built of brick.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Khalka Temple. — A temple in Northern Hindostan, situated on the north side of the Cali river; lat. 29° 40′ N., lon. 80° E.

Khamti.—A small country of India beyond the Ganges adjacent to Assam, situated due south of Jorhaut and bounded on the south by the Munipoor territories. *It is described* as a plain country much overgrown with jungle, which about 1798 was treacherously subjected by the Bura Gohaing or regent of Assam. The Khamti tribe are said to have originated from the Bor Khamti country, which lies on the northern side of the high snowy hills of Brahmacoond.—(*F. Buchanan, Lieut. Neufville, &c.*)

Khanapoor.—A subdivision of the Bejapoor province, bounded on the east by the Putwurduns' talook of Angol (the conspicuous hill fort of Yeloorghur standing near the boundary), to the west by Kalanudee, and separated by a very mountainous ridge from the Portuguese territory, here distinguished by the name of Bardes. Its mean length is twenty-eight, and average breadth twenty-two miles, including the little tributary state of Jambootee, and a series of villages attached to the hill fort of Bheemghur: total area about 500 square miles. It is watered by the brooks that contribute to the formation of the Malparba, which is a shallow stream in the dry season, but never wholly without water. The inhabitants consider themselves Maharattas, and speak that language.

This petty zillah includes every variety of surface, many portions of which are romantically beautiful. Near the centre as an instance of complete inaccessibility stands the hill-fort of Bheemghur. The rock on which it is built is very lofty, and on two sides almost precipitous, and being surrounded by a double line of

abrupt hills, can only be approached through a rugged succession of ascents and descents, almost every step being from one rock to another. Through the wilder part of this small division, amounting to three-fourths of it, verdure never entirely deserts the scenery, there being always abundance of evergreen bushes to relieve the eye.

Excessive moisture is the leading characteristic of the climate; but after the rains are over the sky becomes serene, and the sun's rays intensely hot, which added to the exhalations from the woods and rank grass that cover almost eleven-twelfths of the whole, generates intermittent fever, and renders the tract otherwise hostile to longevity. In 1820, the British portion of this zillah contained one market town and seventy-four villages; twelve more subsisted the garrison of Bheemghur; seventeen compose the jaghire of the dessye of Jambootee (a British tributary), and about eighteen more have been alienated to zemindars and religious establishments. At the above date the town of Khanapoor contained 514 houses inhabited by 2,648 persons. The total of all descriptions in the district amounted then to 21,658 persons, but it is evidently capable of supporting a much larger population.

Nearly three-fourths of the village inhabitants are cultivating Maharattas. There are also about fifty families of Portuguese Christians, mostly residing in the town of Khanapoor, either as small cultivators or distillers of spirits, and are an exceedingly poor sunken race. Indeed the inhabitants generally as animals, are an inferior race, low in stature, contracted in growth, dull in intellect. The village sites seem chosen for concealment. A horse-shoe bend of the river, with rocky banks and a stony ford screened by trees; the end of a sinuous valley, whose turns double almost back on each other; the centre of a confused heap of granitic rocks, are the spots selected, all implying a desire of shelter from the aggressions of roving pillagers.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

KHANDESH, Province of.—See CANDEISH.

KHANDGIRI.—A group of small hills in the province of Orissa, five miles west of Bhobaneser, which contain many caves, figures, and other objects of religious curiosity. The summit of the highest rock is crowned with a neat stone temple, of modern construction, dedicated to Parswanath, and all around images of the Nirvanas, or naked figures worshipped by the Jain sect, are strewed. On a terrace behind are numberless antique looking stone pillars, or temples in miniature, having on each of the four sides a naked Jain deity rudely sculptured.

This place is still frequented by the Jain merchants of Cuttack, who assemble and hold a festival here once a year. On the neighbouring hills the ruins of the palace of the famous Raja Lalat Indra Kesari are still to be seen, and on the brow of a cavern inscriptions have been discovered, in the exact character as that on the pillar at Delhi, which has not yet been decyphered. The most remarkable circumstances attending these inscriptions are the close resemblance some of the letters bear to those of the Greek alphabet, and their being found on sundry ancient monuments remotely scattered over different parts of Hindostan, as on the Delhi pillar, the column at Allahabad, Sarun in Bahar, Elephanta, and Ellora.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

KHANSA.—A town in the Nepaulese dominions, fifty miles east by north from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 50′ N., lon. 85° 46′ E.

KHAO KASOON (*Khao, a mountain*).—A mountain of considerable elevation, situated on the road between Bangnarom on the west coast of the gulf of Siam, and Mergui on the bay of Bengal. At a short distance beyond this a cluster of tamarind trees are said to mark the former boundary between the Burmese and Siamese possessions.—(*Capt. Burney, Mr. Harris, &c.*)

KHASGUNGE.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty miles N.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 50′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E.

KHATANG.—A district in Northern Hindostan, situated to the north of the Lama Dangra mountains, subject to the Nepaulese, and under the jurisdiction of a governor sent from Catmandoo, who rules an extensive and mountainous region, bounded by the Arun on the east, on the west by the Tamba Cosi, which separates it from the territory of Bhatgong, one of the three principalities into which Nepaul Proper was once subdivided. Towards the south it descends to the Kamal, which in part separates it from Muckwanpoor, and it comprehends a portion of the country inhabited by the Kirauts. In proportion to the latitude and elevation, the climate, surface, and vegetable productions will be found described under the general head of Nepaul. The principal forts or stations are Hidang, where the governor resides; Chaudandi, where the rajas formerly lived; Hawah, a large town with a fort near the junction of the San Cosi and Doodh Cosi rivers; Chariyaghurry on the Kamal; and Huticya at the junction of the San Cosi and Arun rivers. At the temple of Kalesi, where the two Cosis unite, there is in February a very great fair.

With Tibet there are said to be two routes of communication. On the Doodh Cosi is Lamja, to which the Tibetians come at all seasons, and the place itself is inhabited by individuals of that nation. The other route to Tibet from Khatang is towards Dudh Kunda, a place in Tibet where there is a great annual fair. The commerce by the Tamba Cosi goes by Phala, a gola or custom-house in the former territory of Bhatgong. According to native information the roads from the San Cosi are difficult, but for the most part practicable on horses; from Chaltra to Nepaul the road is rather better, but in many places the rider must dismount. After passing the falls of the Cosi at Chattra the San Cosi is navigable in canoes to the junction of the Risu, where it turns to the north. The Arun is said to be navigable to Hidang, which appears improbable, when the mountainous country it penetrates is considered.

According to the same authorities the chief place in Khatang is Dalka on the Tamba Cosi, situated in a plain extending to Puchighaut on both sides of the Tamba Cosi and about a mile in width. Dalka is described as a town resembling Timmi in the Nepaul valley (which may contain about 4,000 people), is built of brick, and chiefly inhabited by Newass. The land revenue of Khatang in 1809, was only estimated at 15,000 rupees.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

KHEAUKFEO.—A harbour on the Arracan coast, situated at the north end of the island of Ramree, and described as large enough to contain the whole navy of Great Britain. The anchorage is from fifteen to eighteen fathoms, and being land-locked on three sides, the west, east, and south, is completely secured against the violence of the south-west monsoon. Kheauk signifies a stone, and feo, white.

KHEIR.—A commercial town in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the northern branch of the Anjenweel river, thirty miles S.E. from Fort Victoria; lat. 17° 41′ N., lon. 73° 34′ E.

KHEIR.—A town in the province of Candeish, which in 1818 belonged to the Peshwa. Lat. 20° 53′ N., lon. 74° 42′ E., 104 miles E.S.E. from Surat. Goor, or coarse sugar, is manufactured here.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

KHEIRLAH.—This district occupies the western extremity of the Gundwana province, and consists principally of several ranges of hills with vallies intervening, through which flow various small streams, but the country has as yet been but little explored. The rajas of Gundwana are said to have formerly reigned at Kheirlah near Baitool.

KHEJRA.—A town in the province

of Malwa, pergunnah of Birseah, five miles north from the town of Birseah; lat. 23° 45′ N., lon. 77° 32′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Dhar.

KHEMLASSA.—A large walled town in the province of Malwa, with a fort or ghurry adjoining, thirty-seven miles E. by N. from Seronge; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E.

KHEROO (*or Kirong*).—A station situated at one of the principal passes through the Himalaya mountains, where the boundaries are so uncertain, that it may either be assigned to Tibet or Hindostan; lat. 28° 22′ N., lon. 85° 23′ E., fifty-two miles N.N.E. from Catmandoo.

This was once a large place, but is now inconsiderable, having been laid waste prior to A.D. 1790 by the Cala Soogpa Tartars, who occupy the country north of Joongale, and who for some time possessed themselves of Lassa. From Kheroo there are not any snowy mountains to be seen in the northern quarter; but such are visible in the south, west, and south-eastern quarters. In 1816 this place was the residence of some Chinese authorities of rank, where a considerable body of troops, detached in advance from the main body (then supposed to be at Teshoo Loomboo) had arrived and were quartered.—(*Kirkpatrick, Gardner, &c.*)

KHEYRALOO.—A town in the province of Gujerat, seventy miles north from the city of Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 58′ N., lon. 72° 35′ E.

KHIDERABAD.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-three miles N. by E. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 18′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E.

KHODAGUNGE.—A town and spacious serai in the province of Agra, district of Furruckabad, situated on the left bank of the Cali Nuddy, thirteen miles S. by E. from the town of Furruckabad.

KHOORDAH (*Khurda*).—A small principality in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, the capital of which, Khoordahghur, stands about twenty miles S.W. of Cuttack, and fifteen west of Piply. It is enclosed by a depth of impervious forest to the extent of many miles, carefully trained to grow in a close matting of the most thorny thickets, the only avenues to the interior being through defiles strongly fortified. The principal entrance in 1804 was from the eastward, communicating with the Piply road, which was also strengthened after the native fashion; and there were two other accessible entrances, one from the north-west, and the other from the west. South of the Mahanuddy, in the Khoordah country, a few isolated hills of white and variegated sandstone occur, curiously interspersed with granite. The Khoordah raja is hereditary high priest of Juggernauth, and keeper of the idol's wardrobe.

Soon after the conquest of Cuttack this pergunnah became remarkable for its hostility to the British government, and at length became so refractory, that it became necessary to secure the person of the raja, Muckund Deo, then eighteen years of age. To effect this, in 1804 three separate attacks were made on Khoordahghur, which by a series of well-concerted operations was at length captured, but the raja had escaped. A short time afterwards, however, he voluntarily came in and surrendered himself, and was in consequence restored to his functions in the temple; but the management of his zemindary was for the time retained, a large commission being allowed him from the proceeds. In this state matters continued until 1817, in which year the lower classes and pykes, or local militia, stimulated, as was supposed, by Juggoo Bundoo, the raja's dewan, rose unexpectedly in rebellion, and being protected by their jungles, kept the district in commotion for almost two years. In this emergency it became necessary to secure the persons of the Khoordah raja and his son, which was accordingly done, and they arrived at Cuttack on the 11th June 1817.

Sovereign authority has always been vested in the Khoordah rajas, who, down to the present day, are the sole fountain of honour in Cuttack, where all deeds in the Ooria language bear the date of the auk, or ascension of the reigning prince of that house, and are prefaced with a recital of his titles, which are precisely those of the great raja Anang Bheem Deo, a monarch of Orissa in the twelth century. The rajas resided first at Pipiy, afterwards at Rathipoor, and finally built their fort and palace in a difficult part of Khoordah, where they were discovered by the British in 1803. Since their rebellion in 1804 the Khoordah rajas have only been officially acknowleded as private landholders, their territories being managed by British collectors; but he is allowed an ample pension, and is chief in authority over the holy temple of Juggernauth.—(*J. B. Blunt, Stirling, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

KHOOSHALGHUR (*Khush-hal-ghar*).—A mud-fort with double walls, round bastions, and a ditch, in the province of Agra, north-west of the Chumbul, sixty-six miles S E. from Jeypoor; lat. 26° 32′ N., lon. 76° 27′ E.

KHOOSHGUL.—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, which was ceded to the British in 1817 along with Darwar, but was then held by the adherents of Trimbuckjee Dainglia.

KHUNDADAR.—A fortress in the Gujerat peninsula, division of Cattywar, which surrendered in 1809 to the detachment under Colonel Walker, on which occasion the garrison congratulated themselves that having him for their destroyer, they would thereby attain paradise.—(*Public MS. Documents, Walker, &c.*)

KHUNTAGHAUT.—A name for the principality of Bijnee, which see.

KHUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles N.E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 44′ N., lon. 76° 39′ E.

KHYRABAD.—A district in the northern quarter of the Oude province, within the king's territories, and situated principally between the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. This district is naturally fertile, and amply supplied with moisture from many streams flowing south-west from the mountains; but its general condition is very inferior to that of the adjacent territories under the British government. The principal crops are barley, wheat, tobacco, and small peas. The soil is of a light sandy nature, easily pulverized, and during the dry monsoon ascends with the wind in clouds of dust, while in the cold season the crops are frequently injured by the severity of the frost. There are some fields of sugar-cane; but this species of cultivation, which requires a steady and just political government to ensure to the peasant the fruits of his labour, is very ill conducted. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Goomty, and Goggra; the chief towns, Khyrabad, Shahabad, and Narangabad.—(*Tennant, &c.*)

KHYRABAD.—The capital and denominator of the above district, situated in the province of Oude; lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 80° 40′ E.

KHYRABAD.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowty, five miles S.S.W. from the Mucundra pass. In 1820 this place contained about 1,200 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KHYRPOOR.—A town in the province of Mooltan, principality of Sinde. In 1809 it was the residence of Meer Sohrab, one of the ameers or princes of that country. It was then a place of some trade, and noted for the dyeing of cloth; lat. 24° 55′ N., lon. 69° 27′ E., 112 miles E.S.E. from Hyderabad.

KHYTUL.—A town in the province of Delhi, the capital of a Seik chief, thirty-six miles W.S.W. from Kurnaul; lat. 29° 47′ N., lon 76° 20′ E.

KIENLUNG (or *Chin-lung*).—A

town in Tibet, situated on the north bank of the Sutuleje, twenty-two miles west from Lake Rawans Hrad; lat. 31° 6′ N., lon. 80° 32′ E. When visited by Mr. Moorcroft, this place consisted of about 100 small houses, built of unburned bricks, painted red and grey, standing on the summit of a cluster of pillars of indurated clay, in the face of high banks of the same material, rising above the town at least 100 feet, while the town is in a retiring angle, at least double that height above the level of the river. This kind of position is selected by the Uniyas for their winter retirements, because, from the conical shape of the pinnacles, the snow slips readily into the valley below, while the height of the rocks behind abates the violence of the winds that sweep the hill tops, and the blasts that frequently rush with inconceivable fury along the course of the river.

The country from Tirtapuri to Kienlung exhibits frequent indication of the presence of minerals. Many springs of hot water impregnated with saline, calcareous and metallic substances issue from the rocks; and opposite to Kienfung is a cavern from the top of which water drops, highly charged with sulphuric acid. The floor consists of calcareous matter mixed with sulphur, and also pools of transparent water four feet deep, highly charged with sulphur. Hot sulphurous vapours issue through crevices in the floor, and the general heat is sufficient to cause a copious perspiration: but the breathing is not impeded unless the head be lowered within a short distance of the ground, when a suffocating sensation commences. The sides of this cavern consist of calcareous matter and flour of sulphur, and the proportion of brimstone to the other ingredients is said to be as two to one. Coal has not yet been discovered in this tract, the only fuel being furze. The vast walls and masses of rock formed in this vicinity by the action of these hot springs indicate that their state of activity has been of long duration. —(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

KILRATAVELLY.—A neat Candian village in the island of Ceylon, fifty miles S.E. from the town of Candy; lat. 7° 24′ N., lon. 81° 10′ E.

KICRPANY.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the north side of the Nerbudda, fifty miles S.E. from Jubbulpoor; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 79° 13′ E.

KILCHEKPOOR.—A town in Malwa, the capital of a small chiefship twenty-five miles north of Sarungpoor, and in 1820 possessed by a raja of the Keechee tribe of Rajpoots tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia. At that date its revenues were estimated at 70,000 rupees per annum, of which 13,500 rupees were paid to Sindia, and 1,050 to Zalim Singh of Kotah, and the state owed a considerable national debt. It was, notwithstanding, a thriving, flourishing, and one of the most considerable grain marts in the province. The raja, Shere Singh, was then eleven years of age. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KILLAREE.—A Hindoo temple in the province of Ajmeer, built upon a hill five miles from Rampoora; lat. 24° 29′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E. It is large and well built, and has a small cataract near it, which supplies several cisterns. A jattra, or meeting, is held annually in the month of April.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KIMEDY (*Cumadi*).—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty-four miles N. by E. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 42′ N., lon. 84° 11′ E.

KIRAUTS (*Kiratas*).—The mountains in Northern Hindostan, east from Nepaul Proper, are chiefly occupied by a tribe named Kiraut or Kichak, who at a period of remote antiquity appear to have made conquests in the plains of Camroop and Matsya, which now compose the Bengal districts of Dinagepoor and Rungpoor. These Kirauts are frequently mentioned in Hindoo legends as occupying the country between Nepaul and Madra, the ancient denomination in Brahminical writings

of the country we call Bootan. They seem to have been always a rude and martial people, but less illiterate than some of the neighbouring tribes. The Buddhist Lamas had made some progress in their conversion, but when the Rajpoots from the south gained the ascendancy, many were compelled unwillingly to adopt the Brahminical doctrines of purity and impurity, and abstain from beef; but they still retain a strong inclination to resume the diet of their ancestors.

The Kirauts being, as above related, vigorous beef-eaters, did not easily submit to the Rajpoot yoke, although prior to the Hindoo migration from the south they had been compelled to seek refuge among the hills, yet until the overwhelming power of the present Gorkha dynasty, they maintained some degree of independence. In A.D. 1769, when Nepaul was subdued by Prithi Narrain of Gorkha, the Kirauts were feudatories to the Rajpoot princes of that valley, and possessed considerable influence, their hereditary prince being Chautariya, which is the second officer in the state. They are said to have once had a written character of their own, but those who can now write for the most part use the Nagari character. By their customs they are allowed to marry several wives, and also to keep concubines.

At the epoch of the Hindoo invasion, or migration into these hills, there were settled among the Kirauts a tribe named Limboo, the manners of which are nearly the same, and the two intermarry. Since the overthrow of the Kirauts, the Gorkhas, as a measure of policy, shew a decided preference to the Limboos, who never having possessed power, were not depressed by its loss, nor by the banishment of their priests. They are not, however, reconciled to the privation of beef, yet on the whole are less discontented than the horde with which they are mingled. They reside in huts, and their pursuits are mostly agricultural. All the chiefs of the Kirauts call themselves ray, as claiming a Rajpoot descent, but they are distinctly marked by their features as being of Tartarian origin. At present individuals of this tribe, under the denomination of Kichacks, are thinly scattered over the northern parts of Bengal and Bahar, where they follow the vocations of gypsies, and gain a subsistence by snaring game, telling fortunes, and stealing. The native tract of country east of the Nepaul valley, although intersected by many mountain streams tributary to the San Cosi, continues but thinly inhabited, and only cultivated in detached spots. —(*F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

KIRTHIPOOR.—A considerable town in the valley of Nepaul, about six miles W.S.W. from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 40′ N., lon 84° 54′ E. This place was once the residence of an independent prince, although at the period of the Gorkha invasion it was included in Patan. At present it does not contain more than 6,000 inhabitants. This part of the valley seems considerably above the level of Catmandoo. — (*Kirkpatrick, Father Guiseppe, &c.*)

KISHENAGUR DISTRICT.—See NUDDEA DISTRICT

KISHENAGUR (*Krishna nagara*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Nuddea, to which it occasionally communicates its name, being the residence of the judge, collector, and civil establishment. It stands on the south-eastern side of the Jellinghy branch of the Ganges, sixty-two miles N. by E. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 26′ N., lon. 88° 35′ E.

KISHENGHUR.—A small town and pass in the province of Allahabad, thirty-three miles S. by E. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 28′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

KISHENGHUR (*Krishna nagara*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about nineteen miles N.N.E. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 37′ N., lon. 74° 43′ E. The walls of

al masonry, its castle on the tain top, and its gardens fenced :he prickly pear. The raja's pa- a large rudely-built fort on the of a fine pool of water. The ınding soil is barren, and in r liable to severe blights from but water, here an important ;, is found every where. The s, or prickly pear, grows very ;ly in the barren hills between ›lace and Ajmeer, but it does ıake so good a bound hedge for ce as a thick plantation of bam- which, though not prickly, are ıetrable, and can neither be d or cut down without great of time and risque from the y's fire. Kishenghur is the ca- of a petty Rajpoot state, which 18 was admitted into the British ıl alliance on the same terms had been previously granted to aja of Bicanere. The reigning ıt that date was Cullian Singh, e Rhatore tribe, but the ma- of the cultivators were Jauts. *shop Heber, &c.)*

ıHOREE.—A town and pergunnah province of Malwa, claimed by oondee state, yielding a revenue out 90,000 rupees per annum. 23 two-thirds of it belonged to a, and one-third to Holkar, with › no practicable arrangement be effected.—(*Public MS. Do- its, &c.*)

ıHTEWAR (*Cashtavar, abounding od*).—A town and district in ıorth-eastern extremity of the re province, bounded on three by the Cashmere and Himalaya ıtains. The town is situated in 3° 58′ N., lon. 76° 9′ E., about y-five miles E.S.E. from the city ıshmere. Respecting this re- quarter very little is known, ıt that it is very hilly and woody, name imports, but thinly peo- and liable to extreme cold dur- he winter. It is intersected by Chinaub River, which has its e in the north-east angle, and some places seventy yards broad, a rapid current. At the village of Nausman it is crossed in a basket slung to a rope, which is pulled to one side with its goods and passen- gers, and then back again. In 1783 this was one of the few independent Hindoo districts remaining in Hin- dostan, yet the chief was a Maho- medan. It probably still remains independent, its rugged surface and severe climate presenting few attrac- tions to invaders.—(*Forster, &c.*)

KISTNA RIVER.—See KRISHNA RIVER.

KISSER ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas about twenty miles in circumference, lying off the north- eastern extremity of Timor; lat. 8° 5′ S., lon. 127° 5′ E. The chiefs of this island are under the authority of the Dutch factory at Coupang in Timor. Its commercial staples are wax, sandal-wood and edible birds'- nests. During the old Dutch go- vernment slaves were also exported, but this traffic was interdicted by the British government.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

KISTNAGHERRY (*Krishna giri*).— A town and fortress in the Barra- mahal district, 106 miles east from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 30′ N., lon. 78° 18′ E. Near to this place the country is a plain, in which high rocky insulated mountains are scat- tered, of a singular and grand ap- pearance. That on which the fort stands is 700 feet in perpendicular height, and so remarkably bare and steep that it was never taken except by surprise. In 1791 the British troops were repulsed with consider- able loss; but it was subsequently obtained by cession, when the fortifi- cations were destroyed, the altered condition of the Mysore sovereignty rendering them unnecessary.

The upper surface of the mountain presents a confused assemblage of irregular masses of rock. There are two tanks within the fort, besides a fine subterranean spring, which rises in a cavern near the south-west an- gle. The pettah below, in 1820, was but a poor place, the more indus- Kishenghur are of solid and sub-

trious portion of the inhabitants having removed to Dowletabad, a spacious bazar erected by Capt. Graham about a mile south of Kistnagherry, which is no longer either a civil or military station.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Dirom, &c.*)

KISTNAPATAM (*Krishnapatam*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, seventeen miles S.E. from the town of Nellore; lat. 14° 25′ N., lon. 89° 9′ E.

KITTOOR.—A fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, nineteen miles W.N.W. from Darwar; lat. 15° 35′ N., lon. 74° 52′ E. The dessye of this place proving refractory in 1824, it was besieged and captured with a considerable booty.

KITUL.—A town of considerable size in the province of Delhi, forty-five miles N.W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 37′ N., lon. 76° 9′ E. In 1808 this place was surrounded by a good brick wall, and an excellent ditch, having on the east a large tank, and a jeel or shallow lake. The wall enclosed a high fort of some strength.

KIVALOOR.—A large village in the Southern Carnatic, district of Tanjore, situated about nine miles west from Negapatam. By the road side near this place there are two remarkable statues of Buddha, in the usual sitting posture, and somewhat colossal size.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

KLATTAN.—A small town in the island of Java, sixty-eight miles south from Samarang, and situated about half way between Solo, the capital of the emperor, and Jojocarta, the metropolis of the sultan; lat. 7° 42′ S., lon. 110° 35′ E.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

KLAI (*or Ban Clai*).—A village in Siam, which in 1825 contained about 1,000 persons, mostly Chinese, with a head-man of the same nation. This place stands on a river of the same name, the mouth of which is about lat. 8° 42′ N., where it is very narrow, being almost choked up by sandbanks, against which the surf beats as violently as at Madras.—(*Leal, &c.*)

KOARREE.—A strong hill-fort in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the western range of ghauts, about twenty miles south of Boorghaut, and commands the principal pass leading from the Concan, near Jamboolpara, immediately above Soweeghaut; lat. 18° 35′ N., lon. 73° 27′ E., forty-one miles S.E. from Bombay. Koarree is about one mile and a half in circumference, and amply supplied with water. It was captured, however, after a short bombardment, in 1818, by a detachment under Colonel Prother.

KOATHURKE.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, thirty-seven miles E.N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 80° 15′ E.

KOBRAI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles E.N.E. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 25′ N., lon. 79° 57′ E.

KOHAUT.—A town in Afghanistan, twenty-six miles south from the city of Peshawer; lat. 33° 44′ N., lon. 71° 15′ E. This place is situated in a district of the same name, about twelve miles in circumference, abounding in water, and producing the fruits, plants, flowers, grasses, and weeds of European climates, so grateful to an eye long unused to the sight of them. A composition named moomeed or mummey, is manufactured here, and sold through the east as a specific for fractures, almost miraculous. It is procured from a sort of stone, which having been reduced to powder, is boiled in water, when an oil floats, which afterwards hardens to a substance, having the appearance and consistence of coal.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

KOKUN (*or Concan*).—This term is applied by the natives in quite a different sense from what it is by Europeans, for it includes much country lying to the east of the western ghauts. In one sense it is synonymous with a hilly mass of country, subject to the severity of the south-west monsoon, in contradistinction to des, a plain; but there are exceptions to this definition. See also CONCAN.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

KOMOTAPOOR.—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, once the capital of the great Hindoo kingdom of Camroop, and still a stupendous monument of rude labour.

Komotapoor was situated on the west bank of the Dhorlah, which formed its defence on one side, but that river has since shifted its course still further east. The town was intersected by a small river named the Singimari, which has destroyed a considerable part of the works, but was probably kept artificially within bounds while the town flourished. The ruins are of an oblong form, about nineteen miles in circumference, of which five miles were defended by the Dhorlah, and the remainder protected by an immense bank of earth, with a double ditch, and from the number of bricks scattered about, probably surmounted by a brick parapet. In its present state (1809) the inner ditch is of various widths, and never seems to have been regular; the outer ditch has been about 250 feet wide, but it is impossible now to ascertain its original depth, which must, however, have been very considerable. These works run in straight sides of very unequal lengths, without towers, bastions, or flanking-angles. Three gates are still shown, and there is the appearance of a fourth. In one heap of bricks there are two pillars of granite, standing erect, and in another there are four.

Komotapoor was built by Raja Niladwaja, besieged by the Mahomedans; and taken, after a blockade of twelve years, about A.D. 1496, during the reign of Raja Nilambor. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

KONAPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, thirty-four miles W.N.W. from Darwar; lat. 15° 37′ N., lon. 76° 38′ E.

KONDOJUBRY.—See KUNJEUR.

KONIBAR ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, lying to the north of Wageeoo. The inhabitants cultivate plantations of yams, potatoes, sugar-canes, and other tropical productions. With Wageeoo they barter sausages made of turtles' eggs, in exchange for sago, either baked or raw. They also carry tortoises-shell there, to sell to the Chinese, who trade to that island in sloops.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

KOOHANGAN ISLE.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sooloo Archipelago. It is uninhabited, and appears like two islands, there being a narrow isthmus in the centre.

KOOKIES (*Kukis, Kungkis or Lunctas*).—This rude and martial tribe occupy a very extended space among the mountains between Bengal, Ava, and China. To the north and east they border on the Munipoor, Phung, and Assam countries; to the west, on Cachar, and the independent portion of the Tipera district; on the south-east on the Birman dominions; and on the south-west on Chittagong. By the Burmese they are named Laengeh, which the Bengalese change to Lingta; but more frequent by the latter they are named Kungky or Kooky; for the most part, individuals of the tribe call themselves Zou. They are but little known to Europeans, and are seldom seen, except when they visit the markets on the jungly borders of Tipera and Chittagong, to purchase salt, dried-fish, and tobacco.

The Kookies adopt certain customs of the state under which they live, but they themselves have no division of caste, although they live in distinct, and generally hostile communities. With the exception of those subdued by Hindoo chiefs, they do not worship any of the Brahminical deities, but are supposed to fear and propitiate certain imaginary genii, demons, and evil spirits. They are very strict in burning their dead. They have no written language, and the dialects of the different tribes are said to be so various, as to be unintelligible to each other. The more savage tribes are quite naked, and dwell in hollow trees; the more civi-

lized wear a slight wrapper round their loins, while those in immediate contact with Bengal procure a covering of coarse cloth. Both sexes in their persons are strong and robust, and bear a considerable resemblance to the Tartars, while in complexion they are fairer than the Bengalese. Dwelling among forests and mountains, the Kookies cultivate little grain, and never enough for their own consumption, the surplus (besides salt, betel-nut, and dried fish,) being procured from the low countries, in exchange for ivory, timber, wax, cotton, raw silk, and a variety of odoriferous woods and gums, the produce of their hills.

The Kookies are mostly hunters and warriors, and are armed with bows and arrows, clubs, spears, and dhaws. They choose for the sites of their villages the steepest and most inaccessible hills, and each village contains from 500 to 2,000 inhabitants. Like other savages, they are engaged in perpetual warfare, in prosecution of which they prefer ambuscades and surprises to regular open fighting. When upon a secret expedition they fasten their hammocks among the branches of the loftiest trees, so as not to be perceived from below. Among these tribes salt is held in high estimation, and a little is always sent with a message to certify its importance. Next to personal valour, the accomplishment most valued in a warrior is superior dexterity of stealing, after the manner of the Spartans. This miserable race are of a most vindictive disposition, and blood must always be shed for blood, on the principle of retaliation.

As they are without prejudice of caste, no animal killed in the chase is rejected; an elephant is consequently an immense prize, from the quantity of food he affords. Every five years they migrate from one station to another, but seldom to a greater distance than a twelve hours' journey Their domestic animals are gayals, goats, hogs, dogs, and fowls, but the first is the most valued; yet, like other ultra-gangetic tribes, they make no use whatever of the milk, rearing them solely for their flesh and skins. The Kookies have some notion of a future state, where they are rewarded or punished according to their merits in the present world; and they are of opinion that nothing is more pleasing to the Deity, or more certainly ensures their future happiness, than the destroying a great number of their enemies. These destructive habits render them a terror to the inhabitants of the Chittagong district, and a particular annoyance to the wood-cutters, whose heads they take away.—(*Public Journals, Macrae, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Kookreesir.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, eleven miles west from Rampoora, which in 1820 contained 800 houses: lat. 24° 59′ N., lon. 75° 22′ E.

Kooksee.—A town in the province of Malwa, surrounded by a good mud wall, and a deep dry ditch; lat. 22° 16′ N., lon. 74° 51′ E., twelve miles S. by W from Dhar. In 1820 this place was the head of a pergunnah, and contained 700 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kookurmunda. — A considerable town in the province of Candeish, situated on the north bank of the Tuptee, which in the hot season is only knee-deep here, and 150 yards broad, whereas in the rains it is a quarter of a mile from bank to bank; lat. 21° 29′ N., lon. 74° 10′ E., seventy miles E. by N. from Surat. It formerly belonged to the Peshwa, but is now comprehended in the British district of Candeish Proper.—(*Captain Sutherland, &c.*)

Koolassian Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archipelago. It is a low island covered with wood, and uninhabited.

Koomesi —A town in the province of Allahabad, sixteen miles south from Teary; lat. 24° 32′ N., lon. 78° 48′ E.

Koomparsein. — A lordship in Northern Hindostan, situated on the

east bank of the Sutuleje, by which river it is bounded on the N.W.; by Bussaher on the N.E.; by Bhirjee on the S.W.; and by Keonthul on the south. The town is a mean, ill-looking place, which in 1814 did not contain more than a dozen of houses, although it was the residence of the Rana; lat. 31° 19′ N., lon. 77° 26′ E., 5,784 feet above the level of the sea. The Sutuleje runs below with a very rapid stream, and on its banks are the huts of several gold-finders, who wash the sands, and procure particles of gold. The descent to the river, estimated at 3,000 feet perpendicular, is extremely steep, and, including the windings, above three miles in length, the last mile being one continued flight of irregular steps.—(*J. B. Fraser, Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

KOONCH.—A large town in the province of Agra, sixty miles E. by S. from Gualior; lat. 26° 3′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E. Although the Koonch district is subject to the British government, it is entirely insulated from their possessions, on one side by an intervening space belonging to the Nana of Kalpee, and on the others by lands belonging to Sindia, the Ditteah raja, the Sumpter raja, and the soubahdars of Jhansi. By the treaty of peace in 1805 with Jeswunt Row Holkar, this small territory was assigned in jaghire to Bheema Bhye, his daughter, to whom the surplus revenue is paid, but the administration is exercised by the British. In 1814 the total revenue amounted to about 1,50,000 rupees per annum.—(*Wauchope, Public MS. Documents, Malcolm, &c.*)

KOONDA.—A town in the province of Delhi, nine miles N.E. from Kurnal; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E.

KOONDAH.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 105 miles S.S.W. from Patna; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 84° 38′ E.

KOONJPOORA.—A town and small principality in the Delhi province, under the protection of the British to prevent its further subdivision, by compelling the nabob to make suitable provision in money for the claims of his relations; lat. 29° 43′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E., six miles E.N.E. from Kurnal.

KOONJURGHUR.—A hill fort in the province of Aurungabad, encircled by mountains, seventy-seven miles N.E. from Bombay; lat. 19° 23′ N., lon. 74° 5′ E.

KOONYAR.—A small and fertile plain in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, and bounded by Kothaur, Baghul, and Keonthul. It contains no fort, and was formerly dependent on the chiefship last-mentioned.

KOORBA (*Curava*).—A small tract in the province of Gundwana, formerly subject to the Nagpoor raja, but respecting which scarcely anything is known. The town of Koorba stands on the east side of the Hatsoo river, thirty-two miles east from Ruttunpoor; lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 82° 56′ E.

KOORJAH.—A considerable town with a mud fort in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, containing several mosques and pagodas, situated about twenty-nine miles N.W. by N. from Alighur fort,

KOORNAGALLE.—A town in the island of Ceylon, twenty-seven miles N.W. from Candy; lat. 7° 27′ N., lon. 80° 27′ E. This is the principal station in the Seven Corles, and was formerly the residence of its princes, the vestiges of their palace being still visible near the base of the elephant rock. A large tank and a remarkable chain of rocks deserve notice.—(*Davy, &c.*)

KOOSHALGHUR (*Khushkalghur*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, the best town in the principality of Banswara, from which it is distant S.W. about sixteen miles.

KOOTAR.—A town in the province of Delhi, fifty-five miles E.S.E. from Bareily; lat. 28° 12′ N., lon. 80° 10′

KOORWEY.—A town with a fort in the province of Malwa, fourteen miles west of Khimlassa; lat. 24° 9′ N., lon. 78° 3′ E. This is the capital of a very small independent Patan state, the escape of which from annihilation by its more powerful and rapacious neighbours, is still more remarkable than that of Bopaul. It was founded by Delil Khan, a native of Khyber in Afghanistan, who established himself here in the reign of Aurungzebe. The fortress of Koorwey is described as a place of strength; at least it has never been taken, although often besieged. It is washed by the Betwa river and separated from the town, which last is surrounded by a dilapidated wall. The territory attached to Koorwey is small, and in 1820 the revenue did not exceed Rs. 25,000 per annum; but it was then just breathing from the horrible ravages of the Pindaries.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KORAH (*Cara*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, to which a small district was formerly attached, situated in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna; lat. 26° 6′ N., lon. 80° 40′ E.

KORAH.—A village in the province of Cutch, situated about ten miles south from Luckput Bunder, on the road from that place to Mandavie. The surrounding country is hilly, and yields abundance of iron ore, which is smelted in the vicinity.

KORAM.—A town in the province of Delhi, sixteen miles south from Puttiallah; lat. 30° 5′ N., lon 76° 27′ E.

KORAR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, nineteen miles E. from Jhansi; lat. 25° 29′ N., lon. 78° 49′ E.

KOROTOYA RIVER (*or Curatty*).—According to the Nepaulese, this river springs from the lower hills of Sikkim, at a place named Brahmacoond. After it enters the Bengal province, it forms part of the boundary between the Rungpoor and Dinagepoor districts, losing and recovering its name several times, until it is at last swallowed, name and all, by the Teesta. In the rainy season, it is navigable for boats of 400 maunds to Bhojonpoor, and considerable quantities of timber are floated down its current.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

KORUL.—A town belonging to the Guicowar in Gujerat, situated on the right bank of the Nerbudda, and in 1820 contained about 300 houses; lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 73° 17′ E. It has a fort of masonry 100 yards square, with mud bastions at the angles and square ones in the centre, has no guns mounted, but is full of loop-holes. It has no ditch or glacis, and the base of the wall is visible at a great distance.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KOSICHANG ISLES.—A cluster of islands, eight in number, situated in the gulf of Siam, within four hours' sail of the Siam river; lat. 13° 21′ N., lon. 100° 55′ E., twenty-six miles from the mouth of the Bankok river. They form an excellent well-sheltered harbour, abounding with good water and fire-wood. Kosichang, the largest, is seven miles long by three broad, and consists of hills covered with trees to the waters' edge, several of which, such as the maple and sissoo, are well suited for cabinet-work, but not for masts and spars. It is quite uncultivated, and in 1822 uninhabited, with the exception of one spot, where a solitary Chinese had built his hut.

These islands are noted for several beautiful species of pigeons, and a root resembling the common yam, which grows to an enormous size, one specimen having been found that measured ten feet in circumference, and weighed 474 pounds. It is without taste, and only used medicinally by the neighbouring natives. Kokram island is about one-fourth the size of Kosichang, but is occupied and cultivated by some Siamese fishermen. Land crabs, bird-nests, and biche de mar or sea slug, are also found among these islands, but not in sufficient quantity to become articles of commerce. The Cochin Chinese traders who visit these isles have erected a white temple on Kosichang.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

Kotah *(Cata, the fort)*.—A petty state in Hindostan proper, situated principally in the province of Ajmeer. The Kotah territories border on those of Boondee, about five miles to the north-west of the Chumbul, and extend also into Malwa, eight miles beyond Khairabad. On the south-east they are bounded by the intermixed possessions of Sindia and Holkar; and on the north and north-west by those of Jeypoor and Boondee. In 1820, including cessions received from the British government, this principality possessed a compact and well-defined territory, equal to an area of 5,500 square miles.

Zalim Singh, the raj rana, or regent, held a high repute among the natives as a wise ruler; and certainly the commercial activity that prevails in the city, and the rich aspect of certain tracts to the south-east and beyond the Mokimdra pass, which are cultivated like a garden, bear evidence in favour of his administration; but in other quarters there is much waste land, and many of the villages have a wretched appearance. In 1820 he commenced a bridge over the Burkundia river of nineteen arches, diminishing from the centre, and about 1,000 feet in length, which when finished will be one of the most remarkable modern native edifices (there are none of British construction) in Hindostan. The chief towns are Kotah, Gagroon, and Shahabad.

About forty years ago the legitimate raja (Kishore Singh) of the Hara tribe, was placed in confinement by Zalim Singh, who usurped the management of affairs, and proclaimed himself regent, treating the raja, however, with an external show of submissive respect. He has ever since maintained possession of his self-appointed dignity, and has upon the whole conducted affairs, in most eventful times, with considerable energy and success. He has long been the universal mediator between the states and chiefs around him, who all considered their families and property safer in Kotah than in their own strong-holds. In 1819 his army consisted of 10,000 regular infantry, and about 10,700 irregular; his cavalry of all descriptions about 4,200: total 24,900 men. The principal fortresses are Kotah, Shahabad, Gagroon, Sheaghur, and Narghur, besides a number of ghurries, or native forts. In 1819 the gross revenue of Kotah was estimated at forty-seven lacks of rupees. In 1820 he was reported to be nearly blind, and resided mostly at Gagroon, delegating the management of his affairs at Kotah to his son Lolljee. The old legitimate raja died a short time before that date, and was succeeded by his son, Omeid Singh, who assembled an army, and endeavoured to eject Zalim Singh; but the latter being, in consequence of a treaty entered into in 1818, protected by the Bengal government, was joined by a British detachment, which totally defeated the legitimate raja, who was subsequently compelled to give up five-sixtenths of his revenue to defray the expense of conquering himself. In 1824 another disturbance, raised by Bulwunt Singh, uncle to the reigning prince of Boondee, was suppressed by the British and Kotah troops, after considerable bloodshed, in which Bulwunt and most of his adherents perished. Zalim Singh died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son, Madhoo Singh, who made a considerable addition to the allowance assigned for the support of his nominal sovereign, who nevertheless continued discontented. When the old regent died, an effort was made by the British government to form a separate principality for his family, a measure which it was expected would simplify our connexion with Kotah, and terminate the perpetual collisions of a prince and regent. In order to reconcile Madhoo Singh to this arrangement, it was proposed to form his principality almost wholly of countries acquired by his father Zalim Singh; but he rejected the proposition, and said he would be justly disgraced in the opinion of his relations and subjects, were he for his

own personal aggrandizement to dismember the principality of which he had charge.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, Public MS. Documents, Tod, Prinsep, &c.*)

Kotah.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, the capital of the preceding principality, situated on the east side of the Chumbul, 150 miles S. E. from Ajmeer city; lat. 25° 12′ N., lon. 75° 45′ E. This is a large, populous, and irregularly built place, with handsome bazaars well stocked with merchandize, and it contains an unusual number of substantial-looking private houses, besides abundance of temples; but no public edifice of note, except the raja's palace. The entrances to the city are protected by double gateways, and the walls covered by an outer ditch, cut out of the solid rock. The palace, a large pile of building, and rendered conspicuous by its lofty white turrets, is enclosed by a separate fortification. Under the city walls, towards the north, within a garden, are the chetrees of former rajas, large structures of the kind, some of marble highly ornamented with mythological devices in relievo. The bed of the Chumbul here is deep and narrow, and the banks on both sides are of rock. The principal inhabitants are Rajpoots; but the population includes many of the commercial classes, who carry on an active traffic, and manufacture cloth and other articles adapted for native consumption. — (*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

Kotaur.—A town in Travancore, fourteen miles N.W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 13′ N., lon. 77° 41′ E.

Kote (*Cata*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, ten miles from Dholka; lat. 22° 40′ N. lon. 72° 25 E.

Koteghur.—A petty chiefship and British military outpost in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, and by some reckoned among the twelve lordships. To the N.W. it is bounded by Koomharsein; to the S. W. by Burowlee; on the south it has Bulsun, and to the east Poondur and Joobul. It was originally a dependency of Keonthul, and afterwards of Bussaher; but before the Gorkha invasion had long been independent of both. The rana resides at Koteghur, which is a place of some strength, but there is no other fortress within its limits. Lat. 31° 18′ N. lon. 77° 28′ E., 6,634 feet above the level of the sea. This district is only separated from the native states of Cooloo, Sukait, and Mundee, by the Sutuleje, which circumstance, together with the nature of a country thinly inhabited, and intersected by deep and almost impervious dells, where every path and road affords facilities both for the commission and concealment of murder, render an efficient police almost impracticable. The climate is similar to that of the south of England.—(*Lieuts. Ross and Walker, Gerard, &c.*)

Koteghur (*Cataghara*).—A town in Northern Hindostan, the capital of the preceding chiefship, situated on a declivity of the Whartoo mountain, near the left bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 19′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E., 6,634 feet above the level of the sea. Hemp, various grains, pulses, peaches, apricots, filberts, walnuts, ginger, turmeric, and other roots are raised here, and resinous extracts, such as pitch and turpentine, procured. It has been remarked that the intoxicating quality of the opium manufactured at Koteghur much exceeds that of the same drug raised on the plains of Hindostan.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

Koterah.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Ashta, which in 1820 contained 800 houses; lat. 23° 7′ N., lon. 76° 56 E.

Koteree.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the river Parbutty, in the pergunnah of Shujawulpoor; lat. 23° 22′ N. lon. 76° 53′ E.

Kotgher Peak.—A lofty peak in the province of Lahore, division of Cooloo, fifteen miles N.N.E. from Rampoor in Bussaher; lat. 31° 40′ N.,

lon. 77° 40′ E., 17,353 feet above the level of the sea.

KOTHAUR.—A lordship in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna. It consists principally of a narrow strip of land mostly plain, and under cultivation, stretching along the left bank of the Gumbhur, between Keonthul and Mahlogh. It was formerly a dependency of Keonthul, and with the rest of the hill states fell under the Gorkha domination in 1804; but in 1814 took an active part on the side of the British government; lat. 30° 57′ N., lon. 77° 4′ E., thirty-two miles N.N.W. from Nahan. — (*Sir D. Ochterlony, Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

KOTILLAH.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty-two miles W.S.W. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 31′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

KOTRA.—A large town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Gunjan river, twenty miles E. by S. of Hindia, and seventeen N. by E. of Hurdah; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon. 77° 17′ E. The exact line of demarcation between the acquisitions made in this quarter in 1818 by the British government from the Nagpoor raja and Sindia, runs through this town, Sindia's territory lying west of it.

KOTRAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the north side of the Betwa river, eighty miles S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 52′ N., lon. 79° 14′ E.

KOTYE.—A town on the Malabar coast, thirty miles S. by E. from Calicut; lat. 10° 50′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

KOWLAS (*Caulasa*).—A district in the Hyderabad province, bounded on three sides by the Manjera river, which here makes an extraordinary deep bend. The interior is almost unknown, but from the import of its name, it is probably mountanous. The town of Kowlas stands in lat. 18° 14′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E., eighty miles N.W. from Hyderabad.

KOWRAH.—A town in the province of Cutch, surrounded by an immense morass named the Runn, thirty-eight miles N. from Bhooj; lat. 23° 46′ N., lon. 69° 44′ E.

KOWREENAGUR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, ten miles N.N.W. from Diu Point; lat. 20° 45′ N., lon. 70° 50′ E.

KRAKATOA ISLE.—An island in the Eastern Seas, the southernmost of a groupe situated in the straits of Sunda. It has a high peaked hill at the south end, which lies in lat. 6° 9′ S., and 105° 15′ E. The whole circuit of the island is not more than ten miles. This island is esteemed healthy, when compared with the neighbouring countries, and contains a hot spring, which the natives use as a bath. The whole island is covered with trees, except particular spots, which the natives have cleared for rice fields.—(*Captain King, &c.*)

KRAW (*Isthmus of*).—This isthmus connects the Malay peninsula with the continent of Asia, and in the narrowest part does not exceed ninety-seven miles from sea to sea. Its name appears to have been taken from Kraw, said to be a small inland village between Chaiya and Choomphoon.

The route from Mergui to Choomphoon lies along the sea-coast as far as the mouth of the river Pak-Chan, which falls into the Bay of Bengal, then up that river to the Siamese post of Pak-Chan, about the centre of the isthmus, and then by land to Choomphoon on the gulf of Siam. The exact position of the Pakchan river has not yet been ascertained, but its mouth is probably somewhere about lat. 11° 5′ N., about eighty miles south of Mergui; the whole of which intervening coast is said to be a labyrinth of creeks and channels. Many native travellers declare that it is quite practicable to make a navigable canal across the isthmus of Kraw by joining the Pak-Chan and Choomphoon rivers. The first is said to be a considerable river, broad and deep throughout: the Choomphoon has a very winding course, with a sandy bed. Both rivers are said to

be free from rocks, or any intervening hilly ground; in fact, according to native accounts, they already sometimes unite during high spring tides. Up to the post of Pak-chan occupies two flowing tides in boats, the rest of the journey is usually pursued by travellers on foot. In 1826 a Siamese guard of sixty persons were stationed at Pak-chan village, and relieved monthly from Choomphoon.—(*Captain Burney, &c.*)

KRISHNA RIVER.—This river has its source at Mahabillysir, among the western ghauts, and not more than forty-two miles in a straight direction from the west coast of India. From thence it proceeds in a south-westerly direction until it passes Meritch, where its bulk is greatly increased by the junction of the Warna river, formed by a variety of streamlets that fall from the ghauts. After this, bending more to the eastward, it receives the addition of the Malpurba, Gutpurba, Beema, and Toombudra, and with an augmented volume proceeds to the Bay of Bengal, where it forms the northern boundary of the Guntoor circar. During its course, which, including windings, may be estimated at 700 miles, it waters and fertilizes the provinces of Bejapoor, Beeder, and Hyderabad, and the British districts of Palnaud, Guntoor, and Condapilly.

The course of the Krishna being for the most part through a mountainous country, and at a considerable elevation above the level of the sea, its channel is of irregular depth, much broken by rocks and rapids, and liable to sudden and extreme fluctuations with respect to the quantity of water, and consequently is ill adapted for the purposes of inland navigation. For seventy miles of its tortuous passage through the Nalla Mulla hills it is bounded by lofty and precipitous banks, which in some parts rise to 1,000 feet above its bed, the opposite sides of the chasm corresponding in an exact manner, and exhibiting abrupt salient and re-entering angles facing each other, which preclude the supposition of their having been gradually hollowed out by the action of running water. After its entrance into the Northern Circars, large boats ply at the ferries; but in the highlands the usual floating conveyance is a round bamboo wicker basket, covered with half-tanned hides, and directed with paddles. This very primitive vessel, leaking, bending, and whirled about by the force of the current, gives at first an alarming idea of insecurity: but the trips across are so short, that there is little real danger. Indeed, for the passage of so rapid a torrent as the Krishna, there is much convenience in a vehicle which may be carried on a man's head to any point of crossing, and strike the rocks and stones without damage. Their ability to carry heavy burthens is such that they have been employed to transport artillery.

The term Krishna signifies black, or dark blue, and is the name of the favourite deity of the Brahminical Hindoos,—an incarnation of Vishnu, the preserving power. It forms the proper boundary of the Deccan to the south, as understood by Mahomedan historians, who first applied the term with reference to the geographical situation of Delhi. The first Mussulman army that crossed it, was led in 1310 by Kafoor, against Dhoor Summooder, the capital of Bellal Deo, the sovereign of Karnata, a Hindoo empire which comprehended all the elevated table-land above the eastern and western chain of ghaut mountains. It is much richer in gems than its neighbour the Godavery, or probably than any river of Hindostan; for in the Palnaud Circar, during the dry season, diamonds, cat's-eyes, onyxes, and chalcedonies are asserted to be found, and also a minute portion of gold.—(*Wilks, Fullarton, Moor, Heyne, Voysey, &c.*)

KUCKEERTLEE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-eight miles S. by W. from Callinger; lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E.

KUDDAUNA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, eighty miles E. by

I. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 19′ N., on. 78° 53′ E.

Kudowra.—A small town in the rovince of Agra, eleven miles S.E. rom Kalpee; lat. 25° 59′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E.

Kukower.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, and zemindary of low Raja Bheem Sing of Auniara, ight miles from Rampoora. Here s a fine hill-fort, beneath which lies he town near the river Loosee: here is also a fine tank on the east ide of the town.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kulcunda.—A small town in the rovince of Agra, seventeen miles S.E. from Jaloun; lat. 25° 57′ N., on. 79° 25′ E.

Kulitas.—A powerful, independent, and civilized nation, reported o exist between the mountains bordering on Assam and the country of he grand Lama. It has been conjectured that the Kulita country is raversed by the Sanpoo river.

Kullinjera (*Calinjara*).—A large ortified village in the province of Gujerat, principality of Banswara, eight miles S.S.W. from the town of Banswara; lat. 23° 26′ N., lon. 74° 25′ E. In 1820 it was the head-quarters of a petty Rajpoot chief named Goaub Singh.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kullum (*Calam*).—A district in he province of Berar, belonging to he Nizam, situated between the nineteenth and twenty-first degrees f north latitude, and bounded on he east by the Wurda. Respecting his district nothing further is known.

Kumaon (*Kumau*).—A district in Northern Hindostan, which, as reguated since the British conquest, comrehends the whole tract of country etween the Ganges and the Cali, om the plains to the highest pinnae of the Himalaya, which space inudes a large portion of the Gurwal rovince south-east of the Alacanan, while the Cali river on the st forms a natural and well-deied boundary towards Nepaul. The other geographical divisions are Kumaon Proper, Painkhandi, and Bhutant, within the limits of which is the pass of Niti, supposed to have been the earliest and most frequented route into Chinese Tartary. The area of the whole may be estimated at 7,000 square miles. Kumaon Proper is separated from the Gurwal province by a range of mountains, in which stands the village of Chiring; lat. 30° 6′ N.

From the northern margin of the Rohilcund plains to the snowy peaks of the Himalaya, the territory of Kumaon presents a continued succession of high mountainous ridges, joined and intersected by cross ridges, and irregular angles of every variety of form, but the whole mass becoming gradually more elevated the further north. When viewed from a lofty peak, the surface appears one vast and tumultuous ocean of mountains, bounded only by the more stupendous ridge of never-melting snow, which towers in the back-ground in still and spotless majesty. There are no alluvial valleys here as in Nepaul, nor, strictly speaking, are there any valleys, for the narrow irregular dells which intervene between the ridges are not entitled to that appellation. The belt of jungle that skirts the base of the Kumaon hills cannot be described as a forest, the groves of kuth, and groups of saul, sissoo, and other trees, being interspersed with extensive plains of high, reedy grass, where scarcely a tree, or even shrub, is to be seen. As the hills are approached the tree jungle becomes thicker, and the savannahs less frequent and extensive.

On entering the lower range of hills, an almost uninterrupted forest is met with, containing larger and finer trees than those of the plain, in some parts tolerably free from grass and underwood, which latter entirely disappears when the height of 2,500 feet is attained, where the tropical tribes give place to the fir, oak, and rhododendron. Here every rock and bough becomes hoary with lichens and mosses, and every branch over-

hung with fern; while the road-side is lined with wild raspberry and barberry bushes, nettles, thistles, and blackthorns. The willow, and a sort of bastard holly, are also frequent; the mulberry not uncommon, and wild pears of a very bad quality, and not larger than a walnut, universal. At a still greater height, majestic groves of the Deodar pine are discovered, and the birch becomes abundant as the distance from the snowy mountains decreases. When the European vegetation commences the forest-like appearance ceases; the trees are collected in detached groves, there is no long grass, and underwood is only seen in occasional patches. Many parts of Kumaon, and more especially about Almora, is remarkably open, bleak, and naked. The tea plant grows wild throughout Kumaon, but cannot be made use of from an emetic quality which it possesses. This possibly might be removed by cultivation, but the experiment has not yet been tried.

Contrary to what might have been anticipated, tigers are numerous in Kumaon, although it contains little jungle, which in the plains would be considered fit cover for this animal. They have been discovered even on the confines of the snowy peaks, but they are observed to disappear as the winter advances; and probably follow the annual migrations of the peasantry and their cattle to the low countries. The severity of the winter here is so destructive to cattle, that many villages are then wholly deserted by the inhabitants, who migrate with their flocks to the skirts of the lower saul forest, where they find a mild climate and abundance of pasturage. The game most frequently met with is the wild pheasant, black partridge, and chuckore; woodcocks, though occasionally met with in the winter, are still more rare. Of the European singing birds, the blackbird alone is an inhabitant of Kumaon, and he has not been often seen, and still more rarely heard. It is probable that the more elevated regions contains the precious metals, from the well-known fact, that the sands of every mountain stream are assiduously washed for gold-dust at the points where their rapidity diminishes.

Like the rest of Northern Hindostan, Kumaon is a very thinly peopled country; indeed, there is reason to believe that all the original and impure tribes have either been destroyed or converted. It has been calculated that there are 6,000 families of Brahmins scattered through the district, and it is natural to suppose that so large a body of a comparatively enlightened fraternity, has tended considerably to influence the manners of the hill-natives in this quarter, among whom a degree of effeminacy is perceptible, not usually characterestic of an alpine origin. In fact, during the time of the Kumaon rajas, the principality was wholly under a Brahminical government, principally of the astrologic caste, who raised and deposed the chiefs at pleasure. None of these Brahmins are aboriginal, but the date of their introduction has never been ascertained. The *Khasiyas* are a numerous class, and fairer than the natives of the plains. Their complexion may be described as a dirty white, resembling that of the Tartars and Chinese, but a shade darker, while the shape and variety of their features prove a Hindoo derivation.

The influence of an oppressive government, in extinguishing all the natural springs of human industry and enterprize, was never more strongly felt than by the effect that of the Gorkhas has had on the natives of Kumaon. The Khasiya had been so long accustomed to be regularly robbed of whatever superfluity he acquired, that gain, before the British conquest, had ceased to have any attractions. Even now, he works only to satisfy the immediate cravings of nature, and beyond the measure requisite for their gratification his labour may be compelled, but is not to be purchased at any price; and probably, one generation at least, must pass away before the Kumaonic

will acquire a distinct notion of personal property. The stone houses in the towns are more spacious and commodious than those of the plains occupied by individuals of a similar description in the lower provinces, but many of the peasantry, more especially towards the southern frontier, are wretchedly lodged in mud and straw huts, two or three of which, collected in some sheltered hollow, form a hamlet. Level surfaces capable of retaining moisture being unknown, the hills are cut into terraces rising above each other in regular gradation, which in Eastern Kumaon are planted with maruya, the most common grain from Almora to the Cali river. In 1819 attempts were made to introduce the cultivation of potatoes, for which the soil, seasons, and climate, seems peculiarly well adapted; but the characteristic apathy of the Khasiyas has been found a great impediment to this and all other endeavours at improvement. The abundance of fine running streams throughout Northern Hindostan has led to the almost universal adoption of the water-mill, a machine wholly unknown in the lower regions, and here one of the very rudest description.

The Nusseree battalions and other disciplined hill-corps are composed principally of men who served under the Gorkhas, and are probably mostly of the Magar race. Their complexions are rather darker than those of the Khasiyas, and their features, although in some respects dissimilar, decidedly indicate a Tartar origin. Indeed, their square-built, short stature, broad bony visages, and some other peculiarities, assimilate more nearly to the Scotch highlander. Since this district came under the British rule, excellent roads have been constructed from Rohilcund to Almora by the Bamoury pass, and from Almora to the civil station of Hawellbaugh; other communications have also been rendered practicable, and houses built for the accommodation of the European traveller. With these exceptions the district may be described as without public roads, and few of the pathways are practicable for loaded cattle. Various rude and perilous inventions have been resorted to for the purpose of crossing a precipitous ravine or impassable torrent: but the simplest and most universal is the sangha, which sometimes consists of only a single log thrown across from rock to rock, at others two or three logs joined together horizontally, and sometimes a still more complicated arrangement of logs of this last description. Several excellent hill bridges have been constructed by the British government

The religious edifices of Kumaon are not numerous, and are for the most part small stone buildings, covered with pent-house roofs of slate, and usually erected on some remarkable eminence, amidst a dark grove of the Deodhar pine, a noble and sombre tree, selected by the mountain Hindoos as a substitute for the peepul and burgot of the plains. The only other public buildings worthy of notice are the small reservoirs or bowlies, erected by pious individuals to collect the waters of a spring; but in dimensions they are not to be compared with the spacious bowlies of Lower Hindostan. In most mountainous countries the vulgar computation of distance is extremely indefinite, and has reference more to the time occupied and difficulties of the road, than the space moved over, the consequence of which is that when a Khasiya is asked how far it is to a particular station, he will reply, "that depends on the burthen a man has to carry."

In 1820, the jurisdiction of the commissioner for the affairs of Kumaon, civil, fiscal and judicial, comprehended the whole tract of country from the Bhagirathi (the Ganges) to the Cali, including the town of Serinagur. The great snowy range of the Himalaya comes also within the northern boundary of the British dominions, which extends to the first Tartar villages beyond those pinna-

cles. At the above date the total revenue was estimated at only one and a half lacks of rupees: besides half a lack from the Deyrah Doon collected at Saharunpoor. Those derived from the territories between the Sutuleje and Jumna are collected by the military commandants at Deyrah and Subhattoo. These receipts, however, do not cover the expenditure of the British establishments within the hills, which amounts on an average to eight lacks of rupees per annum. Owing to the prevalence of the sacerdotal class, the landed proprietors in Kumaon were more favoured by the Gorkhas than any other of their conquered subjects, and in the neighbourhood of Almora the lands are still principally possessed by the sacred order, who also under the Gorkhas, as indeed at present, filled all the revenue departments.

The rajas of Kumaon and Gurwal sprung from the same family, some account of which will be found under the last named article. Abul Fazel, who in A.D. 1582 describes the Kumaon mountains, ascribes to them the production of a great many articles, which probably only made a transit over them from the north. The seat of government was formerly at Champavati on the Cali river, south-east from Almora, which latter became the modern capital about two centuries ago. Their possessions below the hills were mostly wrested from the raja by Ali Mahomed the Rohilla. In 1790 the Gorkhas having defeated the Kumaon chief, pursued him to Almora, where after another engagement, in which the Gorkhas were again successful, the conquest of the principality was effected, and the ruling Brahmins conciliated by bribes and promises. Before the acquisition of the districts ceded by the nabob of Oude, the impression of the Chinese power had been gradually pervading the hills, for in 1802, when Mr. Gott was deputed by Sir Henry Wellesley to examine the forests of Kumaon, the Gorkha commander expressed great apprehension that his arrival would be communicated to the Emper[illegible] China, who had threatened to de[illegible] the Nepaul Raja if he permi[illegible] Europeans to explore his countr[illegible]

In 1815 this territory was acq[illegible] by the British government after a [illegible] and spirited campaign, and its [illegible]mate approximating so nearly to [illegible] of Europe, it may be consid[illegible] among the advantages incident t[illegible] conquest, that it offers so nea[illegible] asylum to the Europeans of the u[illegible] provinces, attacked by any of [illegible] diseases peculiar to warm latit[illegible] In these cases there seems no re[illegible] to doubt that an adequate resid[illegible] at Almora would be equally eff[illegible] with a voyage to England, and [illegible] always at hand, a journey from a[illegible] the principal stations in Oude o[illegible] Doab being easily performed in [illegible] than three weeks. In order to [illegible]litate this journey, and rende[illegible] benefits more accessible, govern[illegible] has formed a regular establish[illegible] and purchased houses in Almor[illegible] the accommodation of valetudina[illegible] whose state of health required a [illegible]porary change of climate.

Up to the conclusion of 1816, [illegible] Bengal government rather discou[illegible]ed any attempt to open a trade [illegible] Tartary through the Himalaya r[illegible] of mountains, being apprehen[illegible] lest, in the state of affairs on [illegible] Lassa frontier, the jealousy of [illegible] Chinese might be excited by any [illegible]pearance of augmented commun[illegible]tion, which apprehensions were a[illegible]wards discovered to be unfoun[illegible] and measures have in consequ[illegible] been adopted for promoting the [illegible]tercourse. A portion of land [illegible] near the base of the snowy rid[illegible] occupied by Bhooteas, who are [illegible]derstood also to possess lands on [illegible] opposite side of the mountains, [illegible] either directly from the governm[illegible] of China or from its tributary st[illegible] These persons have always show[illegible] very favourable disposition tow[illegible] their European protectors, and [illegible]vourable settlements were in [illegible] made with them for the lands [illegible] occupy south of the snowy mo[illegible]tains. — (*Fullarton, Raper. T*

Gardner, Public MS. Documents, F. Buchanan, &c.)

KUMBALIA *(or Surya)*.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, subject to the Jam of Noanagur, and situated near the gulf of Cutch; lat. 22° 12′ N., lon. 69° 40′ E. This place is populous and contains many houses, inhabited by Gogla Brahmins, who are attendants on Runchor (an incarnation of Vishnu) at Dwaraca.

KUMPOOR TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, fifteen miles W.N.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 38′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E., 6,377 feet above the level of the sea.

KUMULNERE.—A strong fort in the province of Ajmeer, which had been recently usurped by Sindia and his commander Jeswunt Row Bhow, but which in 1818 was restored to the Rana of Odeypoor, its legitimate sovereign,

KUNAWUR *(Khanawer)*.—A remote and rugged district of Bussaher in Northern Hindostan, which comprehends the valley of the Sutuleje and its different feeders, from lat. 31° 33′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E., to lat. 31° 51′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E. On the north and east it is conterminous with the Chinese possessions, and on the west with the Tartar pergunnah of Hangarang, also subject to Bussaher. It borders on Lahdack and Cooloo, a mountain state in Lahore, on the right bank of the Sutuleje. It may be said to be entirely within the Himalaya range; for although extending forty-three miles from north to south, some of the peaks to the south rise from 19,000 to 21,000 feet, while to the north the gigantic Parkyal ridge is seen 22,000 feet high. The Keubrang pass, 18,130 feet above the level of the sea, is reckoned the boundary between Kunawur, and that portion of Chinese Tartary under the authority of the grand Lama of Lassa. Tartaric furze, the ordinary fuel of the Tartars, was here found growing 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. Within the snowy mountains the valley of the Sutuleje bears the name of Khanawer, or Kunawur, which designates a tract of country extending eastward to Shipke, the frontier town of Chinese Tartary, and northward to Shialkar. Kunawur is properly the middle district of the Sutuleje.

As may be inferred from its situation, the climate of Kunawur is bleak and inhospitable, and great part of the soil unproductive, being in fact a mass of snow-covered rocks and wild chasms. Little grain is raised, but the natives possess many sheep and cattle, and export wool in considerable quantities, both raw and manufactured. In the remoter tracts the yak of Tartary, which yields the shaggy tail, abounds. The other exports are salt (previously imported from Tibet), dried grapes, currants, and the seed of a particular species of pine cone. The natives of Kunawur also possess hill ponies (here named gounts), asses, and mules, the whole, as well as goats and sheep, used as beasts of burthen, in the traffic that subsists between Hindostan, Tibet, Lahdack, Lassa, Cashmere, and Nepaul, for which this district is a thoroughfare. The Kunawaries are much addicted to trade, and are said to possess so excellent a character for honesty and punctuality, that they are employed by all the surrounding nations as commercial agents.

Among these mountains salt is the grand incentive to discovery, its absence inducing the natives to take long journeys in search of this condiment. At present one part of Kunawur receives its salt from the Tartar villages of Hang and Bekar, situated on the Sutuleje below Chaprang. The Neoza pine (a new species) produces a cone, the seeds of which form an article of export, having the taste and flavour of sweet-almonds. By the natives they are named neozas, hence the trivial name of the tree.

The villages are not numerous, but some are more substantial than are usually seen within the mountains. Kanum and Sungnam are two of the largest, containing about one hundred

inhabitants each, and they exhibit a degree of wealth and civilization that no other mountain tribe in this quarter has yet attained. Many of the chief families of the Bussaher state are of Kunawur origin, and it is here that the best soldiers are procured. In 1811, the young raja having sought refuge in this district from the pursuit of the Gorkhas, it was attacked by that martial people who had subdued Bussaher, but after penetrating three days' journey into the valley, they were compelled to retreat for want of provisions.

The language of Kunawar is peculiar, differing essentially from that of the Tartars, and without affinity to the other mountain dialects. In the Bhotea or Tartar villages here, they have the Umma and Sirma (or printed and written) characters of Tibet. The first, both in form and name, resembles the Sanscrit. The majority of the inhabitants are Hindoos, with Brahmins for officiating priests; but in some villages the Lama religion prevails. The natives call themselves Bhoteas.—(*Herbert, Fraser, Hodgson, Colebrooke, &c.*)

KUNDAL (*Candula*)—A town, or rather village, in the province of Bengal, district of Tipera, seventy-four miles S.W. by S. from Dacca; lat 23° 12′ N., lon. 91° 18′ E. The adjacent country is almost one entire forest, abounding with wild animals, particularly elephants.

KUNDAILA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, fifty-two miles N.N.W. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 27°35′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E.

KUNDAPOOR.—A town in the province of Canara, fifty-five miles N.N.W. from Mangalore, lat. 13°38′ N., lon. 74° 46′ E. This place stands on the banks of a river, variously named in different parts of its course, according to the denominations of the villages it passes: it is, however, generally reckoned to mark the boundary of North and South Canara.

KUNKON PEAK.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, twenty-two miles S.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30°2′ N., lon. 79° 3′ E., 6,277 feet above the level of the sea.

KUNGUL.—A small walled town of a thriving and populous appearance, situated in the midst of a little tract of cultivated and enclosed country in the province of Bejapoor, district of Mudgul, about eighty-two miles travelling distance S. by W. from the city of Bejapoor. This place, although within the Nizam's boundaries, belonged to the ex-Peshwa, and from him devolved to the British government.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

KUNJEUR. (*Keonjher*).—An enormous zemindary in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, the capital of which, of the same name, is situated about ninety-two miles N.N.W. from the town of Cuttack; lat. 21°31′ N., lon. 85° 32′ E. It is said to extend 182 miles from north to south, and 125 from east to west, but these are probably the extremes. In 1803 the raja of Kunjeur was a powerful chieftain, and considered independent of the Maharatta power, although prior to that date he had rented a considerable portion of the Cuttack district. The recorded proprietor in 1815 was named Jonardhan Bhanj, and the tribute he then paid to the British government was 2,790 rupees per annum, after which it was supposed he would have a clear revenue remaining of about 30,000 rupees per annum, a very small sum for so large a surface, producing rice, sugar-cane, cotton, timber, fuel, salt, tar, gums, wax, iron, and honey. Most of the iron exported from Balasore to Calcutta is procured in this zemindary, which is also fertilized by several streams. During the late expedition against the Coles, Kunjeur was found to be for nearly 100 miles an open cultivated country, only occasionally interrupted by ridges of hills and patches of jungle; generally speaking, however, the land fit for tillage bears a very trifling proportion to the vast extent of rocks, hills, beds of torrents, and forests, that occupy this region.—(*Richardson, Stirling, &c.*)

KUNJPOORA.—A town in the province of Delhi, which in 1808 belonged to Rehmut Khan, seventy-three miles north from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 41′ N., lon. 76° 51′ E. Indree is a large open town, with a strong ghurry or native citadel; Kunjpoora is smaller, but surrounded by a strong wall.—(*Lieut. White, &c.*)

KUNKA.—A town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, eighty miles N.E. from the town of Cuttack. This is the capital of one of the tributary estates in Orissa subject to the British regulations, the exact limits of which have never been ascertained, but which have been roughly estimated at seventy-five miles from north to south, and fifty from east to west. Prior to the acquisition of Cuttack by the British, the Kunka raja, who possessed this alluvial and unwholesome tract, had long baffled the Maharattas, and rendered all their attempts to subdue him most destructively abortive. The Maharattas had been accustomed to embark troops and artillery on large unwieldy flat-bottomed boats, unmanageable on large streams or near the sea, in consequence of which their ill-constructed fleets always fell a prey to the raja's light-armed vessels, which were long and narrow, with barricadoes to cover the men, and some of them have a hundred paddles or oars. When these squadrons met, the Ooria boats moved quickly round the heavy Maharatta armada, and picked off the men with their matchlocks, until the remainder were compelled to surrender, when they were carried into a captivity from which they seldom returned, the pernicious atmosphere of these jungles permitting none to live but the aborigines.

On this account the Kunka chief and his country were viewed with infinite horror; and when the province devolved to the British government, the subjugation of this state presented a task of real difficulty. The perseverance and determination, however, of the British troops overcame every obstacle, and having by a well-concerted enterprize, in March 1805, captured some of the raja's boats, a detachment forced their way in them to Kunkaghur, which so staggered the chieftain's fortitude that he came out and surrendered, and with this operation, and not before, the conquest of Cuttack may be said to have terminated. In 1814 the annual tribute paid to the British government was 19,132 rupees, and the estimated revenue enjoyed by the proprietor, one lack. The territory of Kunka produces rice and salt in large quantities; also some sugar-cane, cotton, honey, and wax.—(*J. B. Blunt, Richardson, &c.*)

KUNKUL.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, situated on the west bank of the Ganges, about two miles south from Hurdwar. This place is almost entirely composed of large and handsome stone edifices built for the accommodation of pilgrims resorting to Hurdwar, intermixed with fantastic Hindoo temples and gardens, after the fashion of Hindostan. At the northern extremity is a street having an elevated mound of earth on each side, which is annually covered, as the periodical mela or fair draws near, with the temporary huts of the Gosain religious mendicants.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

KUNAILEE.—An open town in the province of Gujerat, situated near the confluence of the Oresung with the Nerbuddah, about a mile east of Chandode. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar, and contained about 1,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KUNNAITOO.—A small chiefship in Northern Hindostan situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, on the southern frontier of Bussaher, and between that principality and the thakoorships of Koleghur and Joobul.

KUNTCOTE (*Khanta cota*).—A town in the province of Cutch, mentioned by Abul Fazel, thirty-four miles north from Mallia; lat. 23° 30′

N., lon. 70° 37′ E. In 1816 this strong-hold surrendered to a British detachment, when the fortifications were rased to the foundation.

Kuppurwunje.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the east bank of the Mooer river, twenty-seven miles east from the city of Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 2′ N., lon. 73° 9′ E. It is surrounded by a wall, and has been estimated to contain 3,000 houses, occupied by a tribe of Bhoras, who carry on a considerable manufacture of soap and bangles, which, with dubbers to hold ghee, may be considered the staples of Kuppurwunje. Agates are found in the neighbourhood. The houses are well built for an Indian town, excellent stone being procured from the bed of the river, and the country abounds with the finest mango and mowra-trees, adapted for the construction of native dwellings. The Kupperwunje pergunnah lies to the north of the Mahy, but its lands stretch principally along the banks of the Mooer river, extending from thence to the Watruck. Among the ravines and jungles of the river last-mentioned were situated the most refractory of the Coolie villages, from whence the inhabitants used to sally forth to plunder their less active or more honest neighbours. But these, as well as the turbulent Mewassie chiefs of Bhogpoora, Amliara, Phoonadra, Kurral, and Wandwa, have long been reduced to the enjoyment of involuntary repose. Kupperwunje is one of the tracts received from the Guicowar in 1817 in exchange for Bejapoor, when the town was supposed to contain 10,000 inhabitants, and the territory valued at 50,000 rupees annually.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Kurdla.—A fort in the province of Aurungabad, surrounded on all sides by hills, and accessible to the west by a pass; lat. 18° 37′ N., lon. 75° 41′ E., fifty-nine miles S.E. from Ahmednuggur. In 1795 the late Nizam made here a disgraceful peace with the Maharattas.

Kurdond.—A town in the province of Malwa, district of Shujawalpoor, the potail of which, in 1820, was a Roomie (Turk or Greek) from Gujerat. It is situated three miles N.N.E. from Kokra; lat. 23° 28′ N., long. 77° 3′ E.

Kurbila.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-four miles N.E. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 34′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E.

Kurgommah (*Cargama*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated in the proper Gond country, and subject to an independent chief of the Gond tribe. In the wild tract a few miles south of Kurgommah neither silver nor copper coins are current, and cowries pass for twice the value at which they are rated in Bengal. Lat. 23° 9′ N., lon. 82° 33′ E., fifty-five miles north from Ruttunpoor.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

Kurgoon.—A town in the province of Candeish, twenty five miles south of Mhysir, lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E. This was once a large and flourishing place, but is now much decayed. It is still reckoned the capital of Southern Nemaur, and in 1820 contained 1,791 inhabited houses. It is surrounded by a ruinous wall, partly stone, and partly brick and mud, and has a small citadel built of the same materials, with tolerably good bazars. It belongs to Holkar, and is the head of a pergunnah of fifty-five villages, the revenue from which, in 1818, produced only 50,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Kurreea.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Narwar road, about eighteen miles from Narwar. In 1820 it contained about 1,000 houses.

Kurmilla (*or Carmulla*).—A considerable town in the province of Aurungabad, with a stone-built fort, which has a double wall, with a ditch between, and a long ditch also surrounding the outer wall. Lat. 18° 24′ N., lon. 75° 21′ E., fifty-five miles S.S.E. from Ahmednuggur. In 1819

it was captured from Kundah Row, the rebellious commandant, by a British detachment.

KURNAL.—A town and British cantonment in the province of Delhi, sixty-seven miles N.W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 38′ N., lon. 76° 46′ E., 1,027 feet above the level of the sea. The productive powers of the surrounding country had been greatly injured by the total extinction of Ali Merdan Khan's canal, recently re-constructed by the British government.—(*Lieut. White, &c.*)

KURNALLA.—A fort in the province of Aurungabad, within a few miles of Chowke, on the road leading from Panwell to the Ghauts, and 20 miles S.E. from Bombay; lat. 18° 31′ N., lon. 73° 14′ E.

KURNOUL.—See CURNOUL.

KURONDE (*or Kuroude*).—A wild country in the province of Orissa, the Caulahandy of the old maps, where it is placed in lat. 19° 49′ N., lon. 83° 12′ E., ninety-five miles S. by W. from Sumbhulpoor. Even so late as 1825 the eastern limits of Bustar and Kuronde were unknown.

In some of the most inaccessible zemindaries of this country, the Koand inhabitants were accustomed to put to death yearly several human victims, whose reeking bodies were torn into a thousand fragments, for the purpose of being buried in the fields, to propitiate the gods and ensure good crops. The present (1825) raja of Kuronde has done all in his power to suppress this practice; his authority, however, is but imperfectly established, more especially over his Koand subjects, who dwell in the most inaccessible portions of his country. Yet these Koands are said by Colonel Agnew to be distinguished over the wild inhabitants of other jungles, by their high character for veracity and fidelity, being true to their word, faithful adherents, and steady protectors. —(*Jenkins, Agnew, &c.*)

KURRAH (*Khara*).—See CURRAH.

KURRAH.—A division of the Malwa province, comprehending the tract of country between Bopaul and Saugur, which was once flourishing and populous, but in 1820 waste and desolate, except the country between the Gyrasspoor hills and the Betwa river, which was still in good condition, and so productive that it supplied much grain to Bopaul. The surface of the rest of the district is generally undulated by ridges of low hills of from 200 to 300 feet high, mostly covered with low recent jungle, resulting from the incessant ravages it had sustained for many years.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

KURREE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-five miles N.N.W. from the city of Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 72° 26′ E. Mulhar Row Guicowar was, in 1802, defeated here by Major Walker, (whose detachment he had previously treacherously attacked) and compelled to surrender at discretion.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

KURREE (*or Khurree*).—In the province of Cutch, to the south-west of Parkur, lie two insulated spots of land, distinguished by the name of the largest villages they contain, Kurreer and Kawra; besides which there are only a few indigent and migratory pastoral hordes. Kawra is valuable to Cutch, as lying on the direct road to Sinde, to reach which, however, a desert of sixty miles, destitute of fresh water and vegetation, must be crossed in a north-west direction. During the south-west monsoon this desert is usually covered with salt water from the branch of the Indus, near Luckputbunder, mixed with the water of the periodical rains.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

KUSRODE.—A town in the province of Malwa belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, which in 1820 contained about 500 houses; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E.

KUTAHNEE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, nine miles N.N.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 25° 2′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E.

Kutkunsandy.—A beautiful village in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, situated on the banks of a running brook, amidst a group of black granite rocks at the foot of the steep pass of Hurbud, which here descends from the table-land of Hazary Baugh. A few miles distant a small plantation of palms has been raised, to supply the station at Hazary Baugh with tari (or toddy), which is the universal substitute throughout India for the leaven requisite in the baking of bread for Europeans. These are the only specimens of the palm tribe to be met with between Bancoorah and Sheregotty, and this village is the only place in a tract of above 200 miles where bread can be procured.

About five miles from Kutkunsandy, within 160 paces of the road side, there is a hot spring, which bubbles up from the hollow of a small natural basin in the rocks, about six feet in diameter and one in depth. It overflows the margin of the cavity, and creates a sort of swamp, until the surplus water reaches the channel of the Mahana nullah. In December 1818, the temperature of the atmosphere being 41°, the thermometer, when immersed, rose immediately to 114° Fahrenheit. This hot spring appears to have escaped the fate of all others among the Vindhyan mountains, in not being dedicated to any Hindoo deity, nor ornamented by a temple to receive his votaries, or cistern to collect its waters. Kutkunsandy is 254 travelling miles N.W. from Calcutta.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Kutsuler.—A considerable walled town in the province of Delhi, district of Meerut, twenty-five miles north from the town of Meerut, by the way of Seerdhuna.

Kuttaria.—A town in the province of Cutch, eleven miles N.N.W. from Melior: lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 70° 42′ E.

Kutubdea.—An island in the province of Bengal, district of Chittagong, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, no where more than two miles in breadth. In length it may be estimated at thirteen miles, by four, the average breadth; and like its neighbour, Mascal Isle, abounds with excellent oysters, which are transported to Dacca and Calcutta for the gratification of European appetites, the natives having an aversion to every species of testaceous fish. Between this island and the main there is said to be good anchorage; but seaward the coast is full of shoals, sand-banks, and other unascertained dangers.

Kyarda.—An old ghurry or fortified post, in Northern Hindostan, fifteen miles S. E. from Nahan; lat. 30° 28′ N., lon. 77° 30′ E. It is situated in the Kydra Doon, or valley.

Kyndee (*or Kyndeenagur*). — A town in the province of Bahar, contiguous to the great Benares road, and the residence of the raja of Kyndee. This place communicates its name to a mountain, ghaut, or pass, remarkable for its romantic wildness, and terminating in the vale of Dungye.

Kyraghur—(*Ksharaghar*) A town in the province of Gundwana, 138 miles east from Bengal; lat. 21° 16′N., lon. 81° 22′ E.

Kyranah.—A town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles east of Paniput; lat. 29° 22′N., lon. 77° 12′ E.

Kyreeghur (or *Khyreeghur*).—A pergunnah in the province of Delhi, separated from the rest of the Bareily district by the Cali branch of the Goggra. The town stands in lat. 28° 19′ N., lon. 80° 47′ E., about 100 miles north from Lucknow. It is separated from the first range of mountains by the undefined possessions of certain hill chiefs, over whom the Nepaulese claim, and occasionally exercise, authority. The whole face of the country from the mountains to the Goggra is covered by saul forest, interspersed with patches of cultivation. The climate is unhealthy, and can only be resisted by the indigenous natives, proving fatal

to strangers for a great portion of the year. In consequence of these untoward circumstances (and of the revenue assessed, although only 6,000 rupees per annum, never being realized) the Bengal government in 1812 contemplated the exchange of this remote tract, for a small slip of the Nabob of Oude's dominions, near to where the Ramgunga joins the Ganges, and application was accordingly made at Lucknow; but his excellency was found impracticable. Subsequently, however, on the conclusion of the Nepaul war, it was accepted by that potentate, along with the Nepaulese Terriani, bordering on his dominions, in extinction of one of the crores of rupees, which he had lent to the British government, from the treasures of his deceased father, Saadet Ali. In this case the maxim not to transfer territory that had been accustomed to enjoy the blessings of British domination, did not apply to Kyreeghur, where the British jurisdiction had been merely nominal, and the revenue unrealizable: while an unceasing petty warfare subsisted, either to chastise the refractory inhabitants, or to repel the inroads of banditti.—(*Guthrie, Brookes, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

L.

Laarat.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the northern extremity of Timorlaut. In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by twelve the average breadth; but respecting its inhabitants or productions scarcely any thing is known.

Laboan.—An island in the Eastern seas, about fifteen miles in circumference, situated on the northwest coast of Borneo, opposite to the mouth of the river of Borneo proper; lat. 5° 20′ N., lon. 115° E. To this island the English retired in 1775, when expelled by the Sooloo from Balambangan.

Lacaracoonda (*Lakerikhanda*.)—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Birbhoom, 11 miles N. E. from Calcutta; lat. 23 18′ N., lon. 87° 15′ E.

Laccadives Isles (*Laksha Dwipa, a lack*, 1,00,000, *isles*).—A archipelago of low shoaly islets lying off the coast of Malabar, which is about seventy-five miles distant from the nearest, and extending from the tenth to the twelfth degree of north latitude, being separated from each other by very wide channels. These islands are very small, the largest not containing six square miles of land, and surrounded by coral shoals which render the approach to them dangerous. They are all very barren, and do not produce any grain but some of them are capable of furnishing ships with a supply of poultry, eggs, plantains, coco-nuts, and excellent water. The inhabitants are Moplays (Mahomedans); are very poor, and subsist mostly on coco-nuts and fish. Their staple articles of exportation are coir, jagary, coco-nuts, and a little betel-nut. Some coral is also carried from the surrounding reefs to the continent of India, where it is converted into quick lime, and carved into images. The best coir cable on the coast of Malabar are made at Angengo and Cochin, from the fibre of the Laccadive coco-nut, with the stem of which palm the natives make their boats, and construct their houses.

These islands were discovered by Vasco de Gama, during his first voyage, when returning to Europe and it does not appear that they have ever been properly explored. Prior to the cession of the Cherical country in 1792, to the British government, Tippoo Sultan had received the then northernmost of the island in question from the Bibby (Lady) of Cananore, for an equivalent in that territory, which equivalent, in 1793, the Cherical raja was permitted to resume; the bibby was in consequence deprived of the consideration

for which she had ceded these islands to the sultan. The Laccadives being thus attached to Canara, came along with that province under the dominion of the British; but as they had constituted a part of the Mysore possessions at the close of the war in which Tippoo fell, and the bibby had not previously the slightest prospect of recovering them, her claim, in 1803, to the then northernmost, not being ruled by the law of nations, stood in need of indulgent consideration. The result was, that her claims were declared inadmissible, on the ground that she had no right to be placed, by the conquest of Mysore, in any other situation than that in which she would have stood had no such event taken place; in addition to which it was not thought expedient to invest the bibby with authority over the Laccadives, under the declared aversion of the islanders to her government. — (*F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Lactho.—In old maps this appears as a central province of India beyond the Ganges, situated near the southern frontiers of China, between the Burmese and Cochin Chinese dominions, and conjectured to be partly tributary to the one, and partly to the other, but which does not appear to have been ever explored by any European. As yet nothing authentic respecting it is known, but as it is in all probability occupied by some of the wild Shan tribes, for further information the reader is referred to the article Shan.

Lactho.—See Shan Country.

Lacky Jungle.—See Batinda.

Ladwa.—The capital of a small dependent chiefship, in the province of Delhi; lat. 29°59'N., lon. 77°3' E., twenty-two miles N. by E. from Kurnal. In 1820 the British government interfered to protect Ajeet Singh, the minor chief of Ladwa, from the intrigues and violence of his mother, who had usurped the government, dissipated his property, and placed his person under restraint. (*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Lahar.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles W. by N. from Jaloun, lat. 26°12'N., lon. 78°53' E.

Lados Isles.—A cluster of high rugged small islands, extending in ridges from the mountains to the sea, with beautiful valleys between them, and situated off the N.W. coast of the Malay peninsula; lat. 6° 3' N., lon. 99° 40' E.

Lahar.—A town in the province of Agra, fifty-three miles E. by S. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 12' N., lon. 78° 53' E.

LAHDACK.

(Latakh.)

A province in Tibet, situated on the tabular ledge that intervenes between the precipitous heights of the Himalaya, and the lower elevations that abut on the plateau of Tartary. To the east it is bounded by the Chinese province of Khoten and the Lassa division of Chantang; on the south-west and west by Cashmere, and part of Belti and Little Tibet; on the N.W. by N. by part of the same country; and by Khofaun and by Karak over a range of mountains, which forms the southern barrier of Chinese Turkistan and its borders; on the south by the British protected district of Bussaher and the independent native states of Cooloo and Chamba, in the province of Lahore. The extent of Lahdack has been estimated at about half that of England. Its shape is that of an irregular triangle, the longest side, or base, which forms the southern limit, running obliquely for about 220 miles from S.E. to N.W., or from Bussaher, by Cooloo and Chamba, to Cashmere.

Although within its limits it does not comprehend any mountains remarkable for individual elevation, yet Lahdack, as lying between the Himalaya, Karakorum, or Mus Tagh,

and the mountains of Khoten derives its character from such an association, and is not only of great height above the level of the sea, throughout its whole tabular portion, but also more or less broken into mountains and vallies, with high elevations and deep hollows, of difficult and dangerous transit. These physical predicaments give rise to many streams, which at last combine to form the Indus and Sutuleje.

Lahdack produces barley and other coarser grains, but is said not to yield sufficient wheat or rice for its own production. The town of Lahdack is the chief mart of trade between Cashmere and Lassa, and its raja the principal merchant, as he monopolizes the commerce, and does not permit the Cashmerians to trade directly with the Undes for shawl-wool. This prince (according to the report of his agent at Gortope to Mr. Moorcroft), purchases shawl-wool annually in that quarter, to the value of two and three lacks of rupees, which he afterwards re-sells to the Cashmerians and merchants from Amritsir. Yarkund sends to the capital silver, Russia leather, felt carpets, coarse and fine China silks, tafetas, velvets, earthen ware, sable fur, small coral beads, and seed pearl; the returns principally consist of Hindostany goods, such as kinkaub muslins, embroidered cloth, baftaes, and other white cotton goods, Mooltan chintzes, sheep, goat, and kid-skins, tanned and dyed red, zedoary, the silk manufactures of Benares, and spices of all sorts.

To eastern Tibet Lahdack exports (or rather is the transit for) apricots, kismisses, raisins, currants, dates, almonds, and saffron. This trade is entirely managed by the natives of Tibet, who find a direct road from Gortope to Lahdack. Formerly one of the most valuable articles sent from Hindostan to Lahdack was an assortment of coral, which although bought dear at Benares and Delhi, was re-sold to a great profit, being a commodity singularly prized by all semi-barbarous nations; but about 1810 the trade declined, owing to the quantity imported from Russia by the way of Yarkund. In this province there is a breed of remarkably small sheep, the Purik, about the size of a six months' lamb, with a fine and weighty fleece, completely domesticated, and easily fed on what most other animals reject, such as horse-chestnuts, and even the refuse of tea. The religion of the state is the lama; but all sects are tolerated, and cows slaughtered without the slightest remorse.

The father of the Teshoo Lama, who reigned in 1774, was a Tibetian, and his mother a near relation of the rajah of Lahdack; from whom the Teshoo Lama had learned the Hindostany language, which he could speak when visited by Mr. Bogle, the ambassador despatched to Teshoo Loomboo by Mr. Hastings. The commercial intercourse between Cashmere and Lahdack has been frequently interrupted by wars, and not many years since the latter was invaded and ravaged by the Chinese Tartars. By the interference of the Chinese emperor these incursions have been of late restrained, since which period a good understanding has subsisted between the Lahdackies and the Chinese functionaries stationed at Gortope. In 1816, the Chinese empire extended five days' west of Gurdon, but did not include Lahdack, although the Chinese authorities asserted that it paid a small tribute to the viceroy of Lassa.—(*Moorcroft, Jas. Fraser, Colebroke, Webb, Macartney, Bogle, &c.*)

LAHDACK *(or Leh)*.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated, according to Mr. Moorcroft, in lat. 34° 9′ 21″ N., lon. somewhere about 78° 20′ E., 120 miles north from Lari, a village in Spiti (a dependency of Lahdack) which has been visited by several British travellers, and stands in lat. 32° 4′ N., lon. 78° 24′ E. It stands at the extremity of a plain, in a recess formed by the contiguity of two hills of inconsiderable height, with the summits of which it is connected by a wall, and elevated mountains skirt the plain at no great dis-

tance from the city. The raja resides in the centre of the town, in a lofty edifice, resembling the buildings of Tibet, as exhibited in the drawings of old travellers. According to native authorities, in 1815 it contained 700 houses, most of them above one story high, with flat roofs. The bazars are said to be well stocked, and principally tenanted by Cashmerian shopkeepers, of the Mahomedan religion. Since that date this city has been visited by the late Mr. Moorcroft, in 1820, who spent most part of the winter in it; but the portion of information communicated to the public from that gentleman's papers respecting this part of Asia is as yet miserably scanty.

According to him Lahdack is the seat of an active commerce, being the grand emporium of shawl-wool, brought from the dependencies of Lassa and Chinese Turkistan, and from hence it is transported to Cashmere, where it is manufactured. At the above date the value of the shawl-wool thus manufactured was from forty to fifty lacks of rupees; and the duty on the importation of it to Cashmere was farmed to contractors by Runjeet Singh of Lahore, for thirteen lacks of rupees. A silver coin is struck here from bars of silver imported from China, which is in general circulation throughout the whole of Western Tibet. It ought, as its name imports, to weigh three mashas, or the fourth part of a rupee; but the existing currency is very much debased.—(*Moorcroft, Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

LAHDACK RIVER.—At the point above the town of Draus, in Little Tibet (lat. 35° 20′ N., lon. 76° E., in the old maps), the main stream of the Indus is met by a smaller river, which has been traced from Rodauk, in Tibet, and flowing past Lahdack, the capital of Little Tibet, is there named the Lahdack river. Near to Lahdack it is joined by another stream from the north-west, which Lieut. Macartney conjectures to issue from the lake of Sarikol. It was formerly surmised that the Lahdack river was one of the principal branches of the Ganges; but this conjecture has been ascertained to be without foundation, Lieut. Macartney having established its junction with the Indus, near Draus. The subject, however, still remains in an obscurity, which it was hoped Mr. Moorcroft's travels would have cleared up.—(*Macartney, &c.*)

LAHORE.

(*Lahaur*)

A large province of Hindostan, extending from the thirtieth to the thirty-fourth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the province of Cashmere and the course of the Indus; to the south by Delhi, Ajmeer, and Mooltan; on the east it has the mountains of Northern Hindostan, and on the west is separated by the Indus from Afghanistan. In length it may be computed at 340 miles, by 200 the average breadth. The principal geographical and territorial subdivisions of modern times are the following:

1st. The Punjab, or flat country, comprehending the

Doabeh Sinde Sagor,
Doabeh Jinhut,
Doabeh Rechna,
Doabeh Barry,
Doabeh Jallinder.

2d. The Kohistan, or hill country, comprehending:

Kishtewar,	Chamba,
Chandahnee,	Mundi,
Jamboe,	Sukait,
Kangrah,	Hurpoor,
Cooloo,	The Guckers, &c.

The above two natural divisions nearly occupy an equal space of the surface, and the whole of the first and a large proportion of the last is either directly subject or tributary to Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore. The climate of the Kohistan or mountainous tract varies; and although of a warm temperature in summer, the degree of cold experienced in winter is little, if at all inferior to that of France and the

central regions of Europe. Between Jamboe and Cashmere many pines are seen on the face of the mountains, and the willow is also a tree of frequent occurrence. The resinous part of the fir, cut into slips, supplies the use of the common lamp, but the method of extracting its tar and turpentine is not known or practised by the natives. The climate of these northern districts is not favourable to fruits and vegetables, being too hot for the Persian productions, and not sufficiently warm to mature those of India. The declivities of the mountains, however, when properly cultivated, produce abundant crops of wheat, barley, and a variety of small grains. The spaces under tillage project from the body of the hill in separate flats, in the form of semicircular stairs. The soil, which is strong and productive, has been propelled into these projections by the rains, which fall with great violence from June to October, and the earth washed down is preserved in that state by buttresses of loose stones. Rice is also cultivated in the narrow vallies, but not in great quantities, nor is it the usual food of the inhabitants, who subsist chiefly on wheat, bread, and pease, made into a thick soup. This mountainous region, if explored, would probably prove rich in minerals.

That division of the Lahore province denominated the Punjab is by far the most productive, but its fertility has been too much extolled: for except in the immediate vicinity of rivers, no portion can be compared with the British provinces of Upper Hindostan, and still less with Bengal, which it has been said to resemble. A large proportion of the soil is sandy, and contains few of the ingredients that contribute to the nourishment of plants. In many parts, more especially between the Indus and the Jhylum or Hydaspes, large beds of fossil salt are found, affording masses hard enough to be worked into vessels, from which circumstance geologists infer that the red marl formation abounds about the stream of the Indus, and renders it highly probable that the sandy deserts in the north-west of Hindostan, where salt lakes occur, belong to the same formation. Such phenomena occur in various parts of the world, and more especially in Russia, where the surface in many instances assumes the character of a sandy desert.

Of the four divisions of the Punjab east of the Hydaspes, the two nearest to that river are chiefly pastured by herds of oxen and buffaloes; and that most to the east towards the Sutuleje, although sterile in quality, is the best cultivated. The two first are quite flat, the last undulating; but there is not a hill to the east of the Jhylum; the trees are few, and the cultivation scanty. It however contains many fine villages, and some large towns; but the latter, with the exception of Amritsir, the holy city of the Seiks, are mostly tending to decay. Great droves of horses of a tolerably good quality are pastured in the country between the Indus and the Jhylum. The greatest breadth of the last-mentioned doab (by Abul Fazel named Sinde Sagor) is about the parallel of Attock, from thence to Jellalpoor ghaut, and may be estimated at 114 miles; from the city of Mooltan to Udoo Kote on the Indus is about thirty-three miles. The northern portion of this doab from lat. 33° N. is hilly, and to the south-west a desert, with the exception of a few miles contiguous to the banks of the rivers still liable to inundation. The general agricultural productions of the Punjab are wheat, barley, rice, pulse of all sorts, sugarcane, tobacco, and various fruits, but there is rarely much redundance for exportation.

This being one of the few provinces of Hindostan in which the British possess no territory or influence, no open regular trade exists; but petty merchants by applying for passports to the Lahore raja and the different Seik chiefs, previous to entering their boundaries, are generally supplied with them. The exports

from Lahore to the countries west of the Indus are sugar, rice, indigo, wheat, and white cotton goods, most of them in the first instance imported. The exports to Cashmere consist nearly of the same articles; the imports, shawls, a variety of cloths, saffron, and fruits. With the inhabitants of the Kohistan those of the Punjab exchange cloth, matchlocks, and horses, for iron and other smaller commodities. From the south, sulphur, indigo, salt, lead, iron, European coarse broad-cloth, and spices are imported; the exports to that quarter are horses, camels, sugar, rice, white cloth, matchlocks, swords, bows and arrows. The trade is not carried on by any particular route, depending on the character of the chiefs through whose districts it must penetrate to reach its destination. The most considerable proportion of this commerce is carried on from Amritsir by the way of Matcheewara to Duttyyala southward; by the way of Hansi, Rajghur, and Oreecha into the western tracts of Rajpootana; and by the way of Kitul Jeend, Dadree, and Kurnal towards Delhi.

Commerce, however, is everywhere much obstructed, heavy duties being levied by all the petty rulers through whose domains it passes, which formerly caused great part of the Cashmere trade to be carried to Hindostan proper by the difficult and mountainous route of Jamboc, Nadone, and Serinagur. The Seik chiefs in the Punjab, however, have latterly discovered their error, and have endeavoured by a more strict administration of justice, and affording facilities, to inspire the merchants with confidence. Although possessing so many fine rivers, the Indus, Sutuleje, Beyah, Beyah, Ravi, Chinaub and Jhylum, they are very little, and only during the height of the rains, resorted to for the purpose of inland navigation, partly owing to the shallowness of the stream at one season, and its rapidity at another; and probably more than both to the unsettled state of the country.

In the collection of the revenues the general rule with the Seiks of the Punjab is, that the chief received one-half the produce; but the whole of this share is never exacted, the cultivators being treated with great indulgence. The administration of justice among this sect is in a very rude and imperfect state, for although their scripture inculcates general maxims of equity, they are not considered as books of the law. Trifling disputes are settled by the heads of villages, by their chiefs, or by the arbitration of a jury of five (punchait). Murder is sometimes punished by the chiefs, but more frequently by the relations of the deceased.

The inhabitants of the Lahore province consist of Seiks, Singhs, Jauts, Rajpoots, other Hindoos of lower castes, and Mahomedans. The inhabitants professing the Mussulman faith remaining within the Seik territories in the Punjab are very numerous, but all poor, and seem an oppressed race. They till the ground, and are employed to carry burthens, and do all sorts of hard labour. They are not allowed to eat beef, or to say their prayers aloud, and are but seldom permitted to assemble in the few mosques that have escaped destruction. Some of the chiefs of the petty hill states are Hindoo rajas by descent, who retain their Hindoo title, although both they and their subjects have forsaken the Brahminical doctrines, and become Mahomedans. The lower classes of Seiks experience better treatment, being protected from the tyranny of their chiefs by the precepts of their common religion, and by the circumstances of their country, which enable them to abandon whenever they choose, a leader whom they dislike; and the distance of a few miles generally places them under the protection of his rival and enemy. It is reckoned, in the Punjab, that one-third of the whole inhabitants are Singhs, who continue to receive converts; but a considerable number of the cultivators are

Jauts, partly converted and partly still Brahminical. The females in the hilly tract towards the east have an olive complexion, are delicately formed, and their manners less constrained than further south. Among the mountaineers the goitre, or swelled glands of the throat, is very common.

On the north-western borders of Lahore the inhabitants are chiefly Afghans, who dwell in small forts or walled villages, and entertain a mutual dread and distrust of each other. This quarter has long been subject to much devastation from the Seiks, whose star is now in the ascendant over the prostrate Afghans. The Seik inhabitants between the Ravey and Chinaub are called Dharpi Singhs, from the country being called Dharpi. The Dharegeh Singhs are beyond the Chinaub, but within the Jhylum river. In the Punjab, the natives are remarkable for well arranged white teeth, paun and betel being not so much used here as in other parts of India. In this quarter of Lahore it is no uncommon event to meet a fakeer (a religious mendicant) travelling about in a palanquin, clad in silk, with numerous attendants of horse and foot to protect his sacred person. These fanatics are extremely proud, and in general insolent and abusive to Europeans. The Punjabee provincial dialect is generally spoken in the country, and is a mixture of Persian and Hindostany, which, when analyzed by the missionaries, was found to contain thirty out of thirty-two words, the same as in the Hindostany specimen of the Lord's Prayer.

The Seiks, or rather Singhs, have in general the Hindoo caste of countenance, somewhat modified by their long beards; are as active as the Maharattas, and much more robust, from their living fuller, and enjoying a healthier climate. Their courage is equal to that of any of the natives of India, and, when stimulated by prejudice or religion, is quite desperate. The are all horsemen, and until recent times had no infantry, except for the defence of their towns and villages; yet they generally serve as infantry in foreign armies, and latterly all the conquests of Runjeet Singh have been effected through the agency of artillery and corps of disciplined infantry. The military Seiks are bold, and rather rough in their address, and invariably speak in a loud bawling tone.

The Seik merchant, or cultivator, if he be a Singh, differs little in character from the soldier, as he wears arms, and is from education sufficiently prompt to use them. The Khalasa Seiks, or original followers of Nanok, differ widely from the Singhs. They are full of intrigue, pliant, versatile, and insinuating, and have all the art of the lower classes of Hindoos employed in business, whom they also so much resemble in their dress and other particulars that it is difficult to distinguish them. The three religious sects of Acalies, Shauhed, and Nirmala, have each their peculiar manners. The Nanok, Putras, or descendants of Nanok, have the character of a mild, inoffensive race.

The Seik Hindoo converts continue all those civil and religious customs of the tribes to which they originally belonged, which they can practise without infringing the tenets of Nanok, or the institutions of Gooroo Govind. They are very strict respecting diet and marriages. The Mahomedan converts who become Seiks intermarry with each other, but are allowed to preserve none of their usages, being obliged to eat hog's flesh, and abstain from circumcision. The Seiks and Singhs are forbidden the use of tobacco, but are allowed to indulge in the use of spirituous liquors, which they drink to excess, it being rare to see a Seik after sunset quite sober. The use of opium and bang (an intoxicating infusion of hemp) is also quite common. The military Seiks permit the hair of the head and beard to grow to a great length; and are remarkably fond of the flesh of the jungle hog, which is food permitted by their

law. The conduct of the Seiks to their females differs in no material respect from that of the Hindoo and Mahomedan tribes from which they are descended, but may be considered more lax than that of their ancestors.

Seik, properly Sikh or Siksha, is a Sanscrit word signifying devoted follower. Nanok, the founder of the Seik religion, was born in the village of Tulwundy, in the pergunnah of Bhatti and province of Lahore, A.D. 1419, and died at Kirthipoor Dehra, on the banks of the Ravey. He left two sons, from whom are descended 1,400 families called Shahzadehs, who are much respected, and live about Dehra in the Punjab. A saffron impression of the hand of Nanok is still a form of oath among the Seiks. He was succeeded by

2. Gooroo Angud, who wrote some chapters of the sacred book, and died 1552.

3. Amera Das, a Khetri, succeeded him, and died in 1574.

4. Ram Das, the son of Amera Das, followed. This gooroo, or spiritual instructor, improved the town of Chak, and the famous tank, or reservoir, which he called Amritsir, a name signifying the water of the pool of immortality. He died in 1581, and was succeeded by his son,

5. Arjoon Mal, who rendered himself famous by compiling the Adi grant'h, or first sacred book of the Seiks, thus giving a consistent form and arrangement to their religion. He died in 1606, and was followed by his son,

6. Hurgovind. This was the first warlike gooroo, or priest militant, and is said the first that permitted the sect to eat the flesh of all animals except the cow. He died in 1644, and was succeeded by his grandson,

7. Hurray, whose rule was tranquil, and who was followed in 1661 by his son,

8. Hurkrishna, who died at Delhi, A.D. 1664. After much opposition, his successor was,

9. Tegh Bahauder. This gooroo was put to death by the Mogul government in 1675, after having resided for some time in obscurity at Patna.

10. Gooroo Govind, the son of Tegh Bahauder, followed. This martial priest new modelled the whole government of the Seiks, and converted them into a band of ferocious soldiers, changing their designation from Seik to Singh, which signifies a lion, and before had been exclusively assumed by the Rajpoot tribes. He also prohibited his followers from cutting their hair or shaving their heads. After much skirmishing with the Mahomedans, during the reign of Aurengzebe, he was expelled from Lahore, and is supposed to have died, or been assassinated, A.D. 1708, at Nandere, in the Deccan, where there is a temple erected to his memory, a noted place of pilgrimage. The Seiks revere Gooroo Nanok as the promulgator of their religion, but consider Gooroo Govind as the founder of their worldly greatness and political independence. He was the last acknowledged gooroo, or religious ruler of the Seiks; as from his time, every petty raja in his dominions considers himself head both of church and state, and most of them have become violent persecutors.

During the confusion that ensued in Hindostan after the death of Aurengzebe, in 1707, the Seiks grew in strength, and devastated the country under the command of a Bairaggi, or religious mendicant, named Banda, who was at length taken prisoner by the Mogul's officers, and executed. There still remains a tribe of Seiks named Bandai, or followers of Banda, who chiefly reside in Mooltan, Tatta, and other cities adjacent to the Indus.

From the death of Banda, about 1711, until the invasion of India by Nadir Shah in 1739, we hear little of the Seiks, who are related to have plundered that conqueror's baggage. In the subsequent dissolution of all subordination which pervaded Lahore, the Seik power waxed strong,

and during the first Abdalli Afghan invasion in 1746, they made themselves master of a considerable portion of the Doabs, of the Ravey and Jallinder. They received many severe checks from the Mahomedans, and, in 1762 and 1763, were almost exterminated by Ahmed Shah Abdalli; but, from their determined spirit of resistance, they always rose superior to their misfortunes, until they acquired and consolidated their present possessions.

For many years prior to the appearance of Runjeet Singh, they were mostly occupied by petty internal feuds transmitted from father to son; and independent of the comparatively larger conquests in which the more powerful chiefs were engaged, intestine war raged in every town and village, contested by brothers and near relations, and stained with treachery and assassination. In this state of anarchy their power became so little formidable, that about 1803 General Perron, who commanded a corps of disciplined infantry in the service of Dowlet Row Sindia, contemplated the subjugation of the Punjab, with the view of making the Indus the boundary of his master's dominions. When Holcar fled across the Sutuleje in 1805, he was pursued there by Lord Lake, upon which occasion a national council of Seik chiefs was called to avert the danger; but very few of the leaders attended, and many of the absentees notified their intention of resisting the resolutions of the council, whatever they might be.

It is difficult to estimate with any approach to accuracy the population of the Seik territories. They formerly boasted they were able to raise 100,000 horse, and if it were possible to assemble every Seik horseman, this might not be an exaggeration; but there is no chief among them except Runjeet Singh that could bring an effective body of 4,000 into the field; and in 1805 that prince's whole force did not exceed 8,000 men. By the arrangements of that and subsequent years a grand political separation was made of the nation, which became divided into two distinct communities: those to the south of the Sutuleje under British protection, and those to the north of that river, nominally independent, but in reality all more or less subject to Runjeet Singh, the raja of Lahore city. To the incessant encroachments of this prince, once their equal, the other petty leaders opposed neither union nor policy. In every skirmish or action, in every trifling siege, they evince the utmost disregard of personal danger; yet having made a short resistance, and sacrificed unnecessarily a number of lives, they seem to think they have done all that is required, and then yield an unconditional submission, with as little solid reason, as they at first commenced hostilities.

The Lahore province from its commanding situation possesses many advantages over the rest of India, and under a regular government would alone be sufficient to form the basis of a powerful and civilized kingdom. The productive powers of the southern half, intersected by five noble rivers, might easily be renovated, and with the natural strength and temperate climate of the northern unite circumstances in its favour that rarely occur together. These advantages added to its geographical position at the only assailable quarter, point it out as the country from whence Hindostan is to be ruled, conquered, and defended. It is nevertheless in a very miserable condition, both as to cultivation and population, the latter being scantily dispersed over an extensive area of above 70,000 square miles.—(*Sir J. Malcolm, Foster, F. Buchanan, James Fraser, Sir D. Ochterlony, Elphinstone, Macartney, &c.*)

LAHORE.—The ancient capital of the province and modern one of Raja Runjeet Singh, situated on the south side of the Ravey; lat. 31° 36′ N., lon. 74° 3′ E. The river here is about 300 yards wide, but the stream is not deep or rapid except during the height of the rains. The old fort is a place of no strength, without a ditch or any de-

fences for cannon. The walls are lofty, and decorated on the outside, but hastening to ruin, as are most of the private buildings. Lahore, notwithstanding, is still a town of considerable size, with a good bazar; but it is not inhabited by wealthy people, on account of the frequent sackings it has sustained, which made them migrate to Amritsir.

The palace was originally founded by Acber, and enlarged by his successors. Across the Ravey at Shah Durra, about two miles north of Lahore, stands the celebrated mausoleum of Jehangeer, within a wall near 600 yards square. It is a magnificent building, of sixty-six paces on each side, and still in very good condition, but much inferior to the Tauje Mahal at Agra. To the southward of this, in the open plain, is to be seen the tomb of Noor Jehan Begum, a building thirty-six paces square. In 1812, Runjeet Singh was building a thick wall and rampart round the city, with a deep broad ditch, the whole faced with brick, and the earth thrown inwards, so as to form a broad rampart with bastions at intervals. The tomb of Jehangeer and its enclosure are capable of containing sufficient grain and liquor for a month's expenditure of a large army, and although the city generally is verging to decay, the domes and minarets of the mosques, the lofty walls of the fort, the splendid mausoleum of Jehangheer, and the numberless inferior tombs and temples that surround the town, still render it an object of curiosity and admiration.

Lahore was captured by Sultan Baber A.D. 1520, and was for some time the seat of the Mogul government. Since that period it has undergone many revolutions, and was for a considerable time possessed by the Abdalli Afghans of Cabul, by whom it is named Sikrei. For the last fifty years it has been under the domination of the Seiks, and has latterly been the head-quarters of Raja Runjeet Singh, the most powerful chieftain of that predatory people, and whose sway, like Aaron's rod, has swallowed up all the other petty serpents north of the Sutuleje. From obscure beginnings this chief by persevering encroachments urged himself into notice yet so recently as 1805, when Lord Lake advanced into the Punjab, he was only one among many.

From that date until 1812, Runjeet had employed his time so effectually, that he subdued the whole of the Punjab; but his encroachments to the south-east of the Sutuleje were successfully opposed by the British, who obstructed his design of subjugating all the small chiefs between that river and Delhi, by establishing a strong military detachment at Luddeeanna. This arrangement inspired him at first with no little alarm; for being sensible of his own utter inability to contend with the British nation, the more strongly he was impressed with the truth of this fact, the more he was inclined to doubt their pacific intentions, forbearance being to him and his counsellors incomprehensible; and the unceasing encroachments which had employed his whole life, had filled his principality with malcontents ready to assist in the overthrow of his usurpation. In 1809 his apprehensions were somewhat tranquillized by a treaty of friendship and alliance, then concluded with him by Mr. Metcalfe on the part of the British government, by the conditions of which the latter engaged to have no concern with the subjects or territory of the raja north of the Sutuleje, and the raja agreed never to maintain, in the territories occupied by him or his dependents south of that river, more troops than were necessary to carry on the internal police of the country, and also to abstain from encroachments on chiefs to the south of that boundary.

In 1818 Runjeet Singh was about fifty-six years of age, with three sons, Curruck Singh, Shere Singh, and Tara Singh. He has only one eye, having lost the other by the small-pox. The solidity and acuteness of his judgment greatly surpasses the general standard of his country, yet he is frequently known to yield his

opinion to that of very inferior men, who he supposes are better qualified to decide than himself merely because they can read and write, which he cannot. In 1816 he made a tour through the Kohistan, or Highlands of Lahore, accompanied by a considerable army, in order to levy his revenues from the tributary rajas, among whom may be enumerated, Futteh Singh of Aloo, and the rajas of Nadone, Cooloo, Mundi, and Ahmed Khan of Jung, besides many others of less note. In the tract where his authority is acknowledged he appears disposed to rule with mildness, exacting a moderate tribute, and restoring the native chiefs; whereas the Gorkhas of Nepaul, with whom he at one time came in contact at Kangrah, always ruled their dependents with the most savage barbarity. While extending his dominions in this direction, he made several attempts at the conquest of Cashmere, in which, to a certain degree, he latterly succeeded. On the opposite side towards the Indus, he has been an unceasing aggressor on the territories of Mooltan and Behawalpoor, and his other weaker neighbours, whom he endeavours to subdue by the same melange of force and fraud, which he exercised so successfully against the chiefs of his own nation. The distracted state of the Afghans laying them open to attack, never abstained from by an Indian potentate, when the opportunity offers, he pushed a body of troops across the Indus and captured Peshawer; but although his dominions now occupy an extensive space, and his army be numerous, neither have any natural cohesion, and the first serious check he meets will probably cause their dissolution.

Travelling distance from Delhi 380; from Agra 517; from Lucknow 619; from Bombay 1,070; and from Calcutta 1,356 miles.—(*Sir D. Ochterlony, 11th Register, Rennell, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Lalita Patan.—A city in Northern Hindostan, valley of Nepaul, situated about a mile and a half south from Catmandoo, from which it is separated by the Bhogmutty river; lat. 27° 40′ N., lon. 85° E. While Lalitan Patan existed as an independant state, it is said to have comprehended 24,000 houses, including its dependencies within the valley; but so great a number appears an exaggeration. In 1803, however, it was still the largest town of the valley, with a population of 24,000 persons. It is on the whole a neater town than Catmandoo, and contains some handsome edifices.—(*Kirkpatrick, F Buchanan, &c.*)

Lalsoont.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, forty miles S.E. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 23′ N., lon. 76° 9′ E. It stands in the gorge of a pass leading through the ridge of hills that intersects this part of Rajpootana, and stretches to a great length along the bottom of the dell. The houses are of stone, some cemented with mud and whitewashed, and many having a low second story, roofed with flat tiles. The religious edifices although small are numerous, the Mahomedans and Jains, as well as the orthodox sects of Hindoos, having all their distinct places of worship. The surrounding country is the rudest and most beautiful portion of Jeypoor; the fields are mostly enclosed by low earthen dykes, and in the season are covered with fine crops of wheat and barley, the Lalsoont pergunnah being advantageously distinguished from the prevailing aspect of Rajpootana by the number of old burgot, tamarind, and other trees, single or in groups, which meet the eye in every direction.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Lama Dangra Mountains.—A range of mountains in Northern Hindostan, extending from the Trisool Gangga to the Arun river, and crossed by no river except the Bhogmutty, all those from the north side falling into the Trisool Gangga, the Bhogmutty, or the Cosi.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

LAMAJANG. — A district thus named is situated on the south coast, and near the south-eastern extremity of the island of Java. The land here is amply supplied with moisture, level, and well adapted for the purpose of husbandry, but owing to a deficient population its resources are lost to the state.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

LAMJUN.—A territory in Northern Hindostan, one of the twenty-four rajaships, which before the Gorkha predominance, comprehended a tract of cold country bordering on the Himalaya, inhabited mostly by Bhooteas, with some Brahmins and Khasiyas, in the warmer vallies. In 1803 it contained no town of importance except Lamjun, the capital, situated in lat. 28° 12′ N., lon. 84° 1′ E., thirty-two miles N.W. from Gorkha, which city was formerly comprehended in the Lamjun dominions. After the loss of Gorkha, the chief advantage that remained to the Lama raja was the commerce with Tibet, carried on through a passage in the Himalaya called Siklik, by which route goods were conveyed to the town of Lamjun, and from thence by the way of Tarker, Tanahung, Dewghaut, and Bakra, into the low country; but this trade has been since interdicted by the Nepaulese, who are jealous of the Tanahung raja, to whom Bakra is preserved under British protection. Siklik, however, is still the abode of a Nepaulese subah, or civil governor. The name implies a frontier station; but among the hills it is used to designate a place inhabited by barbarians, that is to say, such as reject the Brahminical doctrines. The term, indeed, is applicable in both senses to Siklik, as its inhabitants, Bhooteas, and Gurungs, adhere to the tenets of the Lamas, and the town marks the frontier towards the Chinese empire.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

LAMPOON (*Lampung*).—A district in the south-eastern quarter of the island of Sumatra, which begins on the west coast at the river Padang-goochie, and extends across the southern extremity of the island as far as Palembang on the north-east side. In the neighbourhood of the rivers the land is overflowed during the rainy season, but the western portions towards Samanka are mountainous, and some of the peaks visible to a considerable distance at sea. This district is the best inhabited in the central and mountainous parts, where the natives live secure from the Javanese banditti, who often penetrate into the country and commit depredations on the inhabitants, who do not make use of fire-arms.

The Lampoonese of all the Sumatrans have the strongest resemblance to the Chinese, particularly in the roundness of the face, and conformation of the eyes. They are also the fairest on the island, and their women the tallest, and esteemed the most handsome and licentious on the island. They eat all kinds of flesh indiscriminately; and the fines and compensations for murder are the same as among the Rejangs. The Mahomedan religion has made some progress among the inhabitants, and most of their villages have mosques; yet an attachment to original superstitions influences them to regard with particular veneration the burying place of their ancestors. Their language is composed of Malay, Batta, and a portion of Javanese. The Dutch claim a domination over this country, it having formerly been tributary to the king of Bantam, and devolved to them by right of conquest.—(*Marsden, Leyden, Stavorinus, &c.*)

LANCA. — In Hindoo astronomy, one of the four imaginary cities, Yavacoti, Lanca, Romaca, and Sidhapuri, supposed to lie under the Equator, S.W. of Ceylon, at a distance of ninety degrees from each other. Lanca is considered by a Hindoo astronomer as lying under the first meridian, to which all computations are referred; of course has neither latitude nor longitude. Towards the north, and under the same meridian as Lanca, are two other cities and a

great mountain, *viz.* Avanti (supposed to be Oojein), Rolectaca (the name of the mountain), and Samarikita Sara, which three places are supposed to have been the seat of observatories in ancient or fabulous times. The meridian of Lanca lies in 75° 53′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

The principal eras used in India are—

1st, That of Salivahana which commences 78 years after the birth of our Saviour; that of Vicramaditya, which commences 57 years before Christ; that of Parasurama, which commences 1,176 years before Christ; and that of Cali Yug, of which 3,101 years had expired at the birth of our Saviour. Let the proposed year be expressed according to the eras of the Cali Yug, Vicramaditya, and Salivahana; the same may be reduced to the christian account by adding 3101 to the first, 57 to the second, and by subtracting 78 from the third:—

Cali Yug	3101
Add .... A.D.	1824
Year of the Cali Yug	4925

Corresponding with A D. 1824.

A D.	1824
Deduct..................	78
Era of Salivahana...	1746

Corresponding with A.D. 1824.

A.D.	1824
Add	57
Era of Vicramaditya	1881

Corresponding with A.D. 1824.—(*Colonel Warren, &c.*)

LANCAVY ISLES.—A cluster of isles on the west coast of the Malay peninsula; lat. 6° 15′ N., lon. 99° 35′ E. The largest is about seventeen miles in length by five the average breadth, and in 1821 contained a population of about 3,000 persons; but it was subsequently (in the same year) invaded by the Siamese, who killed and expelled most of the male inhabitants, and carried the women and children into captivity. It was formerly a dependency of Queda, and sent supplies to Penang.

LANDOURA.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, and formerly the principal residence of Ram Dyal Singh.

LANGKAT.—A petty state or community in the island of Sumatra, situated on a river of the same name, 800 yards wide at the entrance, and after passing the bar (which almost chokes it up) three fathoms deep. A number of villages are scattered along its banks, at the largest of which, named Kapala Sungei, the raja resides. In 1823 it contained about 400 houses; and the villages collectively 1,650 houses, occupied by about 5,350 Malay inhabitants. There are also many Batta villages inland, subject to the Langkat raja, and inhabited principally by the Karan Karan tribe, who eat monkeys, snakes, hogs, and elephants, but are not addicted to cannibalism. The raja acknowledges subordination to Siak, but does not pay tribute or permit any interference with his domestic jurisdiction. The chief exports are pepper and rattans; the imports salt, opium, and cotton. In 1823, Langkat possessed 200 prows of from two to thirty tons burthen, trading mostly with Penang and Malacca.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

LANJEE HILLS.—A range of hills in the province of Gundwana, the greatest elevation of which has not yet been ascertained. Bundava is 872 feet above the level of the sea, while Nagpoor is 1,101 feet, and Ryepoor 1,747 feet. Omerkuntuc was found to be only 2,463 feet above the sea. The height of the Sirgooja hills has not yet been established by survey or measurement. Kakair to the south is 1,953 feet, and Shawa at the source of the Mahanuddy 2,117 feet. Butterpoor is 1,538 feet, and Dhumderi just below the point where the Mahanuddy emerges into the plain of Choteesghur from the high country towards its source is 1,720 feet. Degoree near the Sew river, where it joins the Mahanuddy, is 1,384 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

LAOS.—See SHAN COUNTRY.

LAOUR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Silhet, 112 miles N.N.E. from Dacca; lat. 25° 10′ N., lon. 91° 12′ E. A considerable trade is here carried on with the Garrows in salt and other articles. Shell limestone abounds in the Laour hills, consisting in a great measure of nummulites, and it is from these inexhaustible beds that Bengal is supplied with this valuable article.—(*Colebrooke, &c.*)

LAPA ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern Seas, one of the Sooloo archipelago, situated due south from the island of Sooloo. The land is high and woody, and with Secasse Isle forms good shelter from S. W. and N. E. winds.

LAPCHA PASS.—A pass in northern Hindostan, from Skalkar Fort to the village of Surma. Lat. 32° 3′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E. No snow was found here in October 1811; but ink froze at ten A.M.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

LAPCHAS.—See SIKKIM.

LARANTUKA.—The chief Portuguese settlement on the island of Floris, situated on the straits of the same name, and one of the very few that still remain to that nation. Lat. 9° 45′ S., lon. 123° E. The Portuguese have a church here, and have converted most of the aboriginal natives in the vicinity to the Christian religion.—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

LARI.—A frontier village in Lahdack, said to be 120 miles in a straight line from the town of Lahdack; lat. 32° 4′ N., lon. 78° 24′ E. Elevation on the banks of the river, 10,582 feet above the level of the sea. It is the first village in Spiti, a dependency of Lahdack. The mountains here are of clay slate, destitute of verdure, with little snow, and evidently of inferior elevation to those nearer Hindostan, on which account it may be inferred that they compose the northern face of the Himalaya in this quarter. Such is the dryness of the climate, that the houses of Lari are built of bricks baked in the sun, and are also flat-roofed. In fact, scarcely any rain falls here, and apparently not a great deal of snow; a vapour or dew must be little known in a climate generally under the freezing point. The breed of shawl goats is said to be found in this vicinity.—(*Hodgson, Herbert, Gerards, &c.*)

LARKHANU.—A town in the province of Mooltan, division of Chandookee, fifty-three miles S.S.W. from Shikarpoor; lat. 26° 56′ N., lon. 68° 41′ E. The Ameers of Sinde here levy a toll on merchants entering their dominions from the north-west, and maintain a garrison to restrain the Baloochies of Cutch Gundava.—(*Pottinger, &c.*)

LASSA (*Lchassa*).—The capital of Tibet, and residence of the Dalai or Grand Lama, forty-five days' journey from Pekin, and 220 miles north from the north-eastern corner of Bengal; lat. 29° 30′ N., lon. 91° 6′ E. By the Chinese it is named Oochong. According to Abdul Russool, who resided there several years, Lassa is situated on the southern bank of a small river, and is of an oval form, about four miles long by one broad. In the centre stands the grand temple, which consists of an extensive range of buildings, enclosing an area of an oval figure, occupying altogether about forty begahs of land. The buildings which compose this assemblage are the sanctuaries of the various idols worshipped by the Tibetians, each having its own peculiar place of adoration, supplied with its own appropriate ornaments. These buildings (mostly of stone, but partly of brick) are of various forms and dimensions, corresponding to the relative dignity of the deity to which they are consecrated. One of these pre-eminent above the rest is termed the Louran, being dedicated to the divinity who ranks first in the Lama Pantheon, under the title of Choo Eeuchoo.

Around the great temple, and parallel with its outside enclosure, is a

kind of circular road of considerable breadth; and beyond this road is a range of houses of an oval form, which composes the bazar or market, and is occupied by petty traders and artificers. The wealthier merchants and higher classes reside on the outside of this range, in houses for the most part built of stone, usually two, but sometimes three stories high, the ground floor being converted into a shop. About a mile north of the town there is a stream of running water, half a mile wide, during the rainy season, but at other periods only a quarter of a mile, and according to Abdul Russool, at no time navigable. This traveller gives no estimate of the total population, but states the Chinese resident here in private capacities at 2,000; the Nepaulese at between 2,000 and 3,000; and the Cashmerians at 150. Eight miles west of Lassa there is a town named Talengaon, containing 300 or 400 houses, with a bridge of eight or ten arches over a stream of the same name.

Sakya, the great teacher of the Buddhists, according to their tenets, still exists at Lassa, incarnate in the person of the Grand or Dalai Lama, who is the pontifical sovereign; but his temporal influence is almost wholly superseded by that of the Chinese Tazin or viceroy, whose jurisdiction extends west to the sources of the Ganges, a distance of about 650 miles. With the city of Teshoo Loomboo, distant about 150 miles to the south-west, Lassa exchanges silver bullion imported from China for gold dust. The ancient history of Lassa is wholly unknown, although from its long-reputed sanctity, there exist records and traditions on the subject. In A.D. 1715, the king of the Eluths, a migratory tribe, invaded the country, when Lassa was ransacked, the temples plundered, and all the Lamas that could be found were put into sacks, thrown upon camels, and transported into Tartary.—(*Abdul Russool, N. Macleod, Capt. Turner, Kirkpatrick, Colebrooke, &c.*)

Lassoor.—A town in the province of Candeish, just below the Satpoora range of mountains, seven miles N.W. of Choprah; lat. 21° 22′ N., lon. 75° 14′ E. In A.D. 1800, the zemindar of Lassoor rendered some assistance to the Duke of Wellington, while in pursuit of Doondra Waugh. In 1820 the surrounding country was covered with woods, but the town was in tolerable repair. —(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Laswaree.—A small village in the province of Agra, situated on a stream of the same name, seventy-three miles N.W. from Agra; lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E. On the first of November 1803, a desperate battle was fought here between the British army under Lord Lake, and that of Dowlet Row Sindia, in which the first gained a complete victory, with the loss of 824 killed and wounded.

Latikery.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-two miles S. by W. from Rantampoor; lat. 25° 36′ N., long. 76° 5′ E.

Latta Latta Isles.—A cluster of small islands lying off the west coast of Gilolo, a few minutes north of the equinoctial line, and about the 127th degree of eastern longitude. The principal island, which gives its name to the rest, is about twenty-five miles in circumference. The straits which separate this island from that of Tappa are about a mile and a half in length, and in some places not more than forty-six yards broad. Between Latta Latta and Mandioli the straits are eight miles broad.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Laulbaugh.—A large mosque in in the province of Candeish, one mile and a half north from the strong fortress of Asseerghur; lat. 21° 28′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E. This was once a beautiful structure, but is now greatly decayed. The neighbouring country has a reddish soil, and produces fruits of an excellent quality. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

LEBON MOUNT.—A mountain in in Northern Hindostan, 18,942 feet above the level of the sea. Lat. 30° 20′ N., lon. 80° 36′ E.

LEEPOOKEE THAN.—A hamlet in Northern Hindostan, sixteen miles south from Milum temple. Lat. 30° 10′ N., lon. 80° 14′ E.

LEIA.—A town and district in the province of Lahore, the latter extending along the east bank of the Indus, and the first situated in lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 70° 30′ E., about ten miles east from the main stream of the Indus.

From Oodoo Kakote to the Kaheree ferry (lat. 31° 28′ N), a distance of seventy-five miles, is a narrow tract contested between the desert and the river. Many portions are cultivated, and produce good crops of wheat, barley, turnips, and cotton. The fields are enclosed either with hedges of dry thorn, hurdles of willow, or fences made of stiff reeds supported by stakes. The houses consist of the same materials, and the farm-yards (where the oxen are seen feeding on turnips) exhibit great neatness. Some of the dwellings near the river are raised on strong posts twelve to fifteen feet high, as a precaution against inundation, which frequently submerges the country to the distance of twenty-four miles from the river's bed. The banks of the Indus are rich, but the land remote from that stream becomes a mere desert. Leia, the capital, is but a poor place, and in 1809 did not contain more than 500 houses. The usual residence of the hakim or governor is at Buckor (Bhukkur) near the Indus, or at Maunkaira, a strong fort in the most desert part of the province.

The manners, complexion, and appearance of the inhabitants are superior to those of the districts more to the south, and their dress more decent and becoming. Within the limits of Leia there are many large villages ornamented with handsome tombs, but there are no towns of note. It formerly belonged to the Balooches, but was afterwards conquered by the Afghans of Cabul, who possessed it in 1809. To the north Leia is bounded by the salt range, beyond which is a rugged and mountainous country inhabited by small ferocious tribes; of whom the most conspicuous are the Kautirs, an Indian race, independent both of Cabul and the Seik chiefs.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

LEYTE ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the southernmost of the Philippines, situated about the eleventh degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at ninety-five miles, by thirty-eight the average breadth.

LHONAUR.—A town in the province of Berar, forty-two miles E. by N. from Jalna; lat. 20° N., lon. 76° 45′ E.

LIANT CAPE.—A remarkable point of land on the east side of the gulf of Siam, thus named by Europeans, but by the natives Lem-sam-me-san. From hence to Pulo Oby at Point Camao, the southern extremity of Cambodia, there is an uninterrupted archipelago of beautiful islands.

LIGOR.—A small principality dependent on Siam, situated on the eastern coast of the Malay peninsula, on the gulf of Siam, where the town of Ligor stands, in about lat. 8° 17′ N. By the Siamese it is named Sakon. The river Tayung leads part of the way for about two hours' journey towards the town, after which the walk is not above half an hour.

This is a walled town with ramparts of brick and mortar, and a wet ditch, which in the rainy season communicates with the river Tayung. Its form is that of an oblong square, with (in 1825) fourteen cannon mounted, and contained altogether about 5,000 inhabitants. It appears to have been formerly more populous, but it was twice captured by the Burmese and the inhabitants carried off, by Alompra in 1760, and in 1785 by one of Minderajee's generals. The present chief's authority not only extends over all the tributary Malay states on both sides of the peninsula,

LOKOHAR.—A small town in the province of Bahar district of Tirhoot, 102 miles N.E. from Patna; lat. 26° 30 N., lon. 86° 32' E.

LOLIARA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-three miles S.E. from Rondunpoor; lat. 23° 25' N., lon. 71° 42' E. In 1809 this place contained about 1,000 houses, inhabited by Naroda Rajpoots, Mahomedans, and converted Rajpoots.

LOLLDONG.—A ghaut in the province of Delhi, where it is separated by a rivulet from Gurwal or Serinagur, ten miles S.S.E. from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 50' N., lon. 78° 13 E. In A.D. 1744, after the total defeat sustained by the Rohillahs at Cuerah, Fyzoola Khan, with the remains of their army, retreated to this pass, and was pursued by the British to the entrance, where ultimately a treaty of peace and amity was concluded.—(*Foster, Rennell, &c.*)

LOLLGHUR.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, situated in a rich plain surrounded by hills, nineteen miles S.W. from the city of Jeypoor. The houses are of stone, and there is a temple dedicated to Mahadeva, and a handsome reservoir. Peacocks are here remarkably numerous and familiar.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

LOLYANA.—A town in the peninsula of Gujerat, thirty miles west from the Gulf of Cambay; lat. 21° 56' N., lon. 71° 54' E.

LOMBHOOK ISLE. An island in the Eastern seas, situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude, and intersected by the 116th of east longitude. The peak of Lombhook rises in a pyramidical form, to the height (it is said) of 8,000 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 8° 21' S., lon. 116° 26' E. This island is separated on the west from Bally by the straits of Lombhook, and on the east from Sumbhawa by the straits of Allas. In length it may be estimated at fifty-three miles, by forty-five the average breadth. Like the rest of the Sunda Isles it is distinguished by lofty mountains, and it is in general well covered with trees and verdure. The navigation through the straits of Lombhook is dangerous, while that of Allas is the most commodious passage through the Sunda chain. Appenan, or Ampannan, is situated in a large bay in the straits first mentioned, nearly opposite to the harbour of Carang Assem, in Bally. There are several streams fall into the bay here, which renders it a commodious port for the watering of ships; and ample supplies of bullocks, hogs, goats, poultry, and vegetables, may also be obtained. Contiguous to Appenan is Mataram the residence of the Lombhook raja, who is tributary to the sultan of Bally.

Lombhook is populous and well cultivated, the rice agriculture being conducted, as in the Carnatic, by means of tanks and large reservoirs. The inhabitants also carry on a considerable commerce with the Malay islands, and more especially with Java and Borneo. Capt. Forest calls the inhabitants of this island Gentoos; but it is not clear what meaning he attached to that term. They are more civilized than the generality of the Eastern islanders, and have always preserved their independence against the Dutch. — (*Stavorinus, Forest, Thorn, Bligh, &c.*)

LOMBLEM ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sunda chain, situated between Floris and Timor, and the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by sixteen the average breadth: but it has never been explored, and remains almost unknown.

LOONET.—A walled village in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, about eleven miles E.S.E. from Poona, and eight from the foot of the little Bhore ghaut.

LONG ISLAND.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about forty miles in circumference, situated off the coast of Papua, between the mainland and Mysory Island, and in the first de-

gree of south latitude. Scarcely any thing is known respecting it.

LONSIA.—A village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated about fifteen miles N.E. from Wankaneer, to whose chief it belongs. From hence to Choorvera, the country has a very wild appearance; the hills are bleak, and partly covered with a prickly shrub, while the plains are overspread with a short thick jungle, presenting few traces of cultivation. The villages are miserable in the extreme; and being generally placed on the most prominent point of a black rocky mountain, are only to be distinguished by the smoke ascending from their hovels. The inhabitants are principally Catties, Bheels, and Reckbarries.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

LONY.—A small town in the province of Aurungabad, twelve miles N.E. from Poona, and about 1,470 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 18° 37′ N., lon. 74° 8′ E. In 1820 it contained 107 houses, and 557 inhabitants, of whom eighteen were slaves.

LONTAR (*or Pulo Lontar*) ISLE.—An island in the Indian ocean, separated from the peninsula of Malacca by a narrow strait; lat. 7° 30 N., lon. 99° E. This and some of the neighbouring isles are inhabited by a race of Icthyophagi, denominated by the Malays, Orang Laut, or men of the sea; because their constant employment is on or near that element, from which they procure their subsistence, agriculture being wholly unknown to them. In their manners they are mild and inoffensive, and are said to be still unconverted to any modern faith, or to have any distinct notion of religious worship. In person and complexion they differ from the Malays only in the effect which the peculiarity of their diet produces, covering their bodies with a scorbutic eruption, such as is found, though less generally, among the Malays themselves. Their language also is said to be more simple and primitive than the Malay.—(*Edinburgh Review, &c.*)

LOOKH.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, division of Rewah, situated amidst a jungle, near the base of one of the passes leading up to the table-land of Rewah. Here are the ruins of an old fort and some pagodas, indicating a greater importance in former times than its present state of desolation entitles it to.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

LOOMCHANG.—A town and fort in the interior of Siam, situated on the road from Martaban to Bankok. Three rivers meet here, one from Sangola (called the Meklong); one from the south-west (the Thadiudeng); and one from the north of east (the Alantay). As may be supposed from its situation, this is a place of much traffic, and possesses a considerable number of boats, which transport cotton, cotton cloth, bees'-wax, sapan wood, ivory, hides, and timber.—(*Leal, &c.*)

LOONYE.—A village in the Aurungabad province, division of Jooneer situated half-way between Poona and Seroor, where a bungalow has been erected at the expense of government for the accommodation of travellers.

LOONGHEE.—A town in the Birmese empire, situated on the east bank of the Irawady; lat. 19° [illegible] N. The soil in this vicinity is very favourable to the cultivation of rice; but in 1809 it had dwindled down from a town to a mere village.

LOONKIRA.—A populous village in Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar; lat. 21° 33′ N., lon. 74 [illegible] E., ninety-three miles E.N.E from Surat.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

LOTUN.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Gorruckpoor, thirty-five miles N. from the town of Gorruckpoor; lat. 27° 14′ N., lon 83° 13′ E.

LOWASHAN.—See SHAN COUNTRY

LOWRI.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-two miles S.W

from Banda; lat. 25° 9′ N., lon. 79° 58′ E.

LOWYAH.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, nineteen miles S.E. from Bettiah; lat. 26° 34′ N., lon. 84° 49′ E.

LUBEC ISLE.—A small island lying off the northern coast of Java, surrounded by a cluster of rocks and rocky islets. Lat. 5° 48′ S., lon. 112° 45′ E.

LUCKIA RIVER.—See NARRAINGUNGE.

LUCKPUT BUNDER.—A town in the province of Cutch, formerly situated on a salt creek or river, which communicated with the sea, but navigable only for small vessels. Lat. 23° 47′ N., lon. 68° 56′ E., seventy-five miles W.N.W. from Bhooj. This place was formerly named Bustabunder, but when the fort of Luckput was built, about 1793, the population sought its protection. It stands on the western brow of a hill that rises from a swampy plain, but is not a place of any strength. In 1808, it only contained about 2,000 inhabitants, of whom 500 were sepoys; the trade also was insignificant. It is notwithstanding the principal town on the road from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, to Mandavie, the chief seaport of Cutch.

The rivers of Cutch are generally dry, or have little water in them, except during the monsoon. According to native accounts, when the great earthquake of the 16th June, 1819, took place, almost the whole of them had their beds filled to the banks with water for a few minutes, after which they gradually subsided. This earthquake affected, in a remarkable degree, the eastern, and almost deserted channel of the river Indus, which bounds Cutch to the west, and the Runn and swamp called the Bunnee, which insulate the province to the northward. Prior to this convulsion, the eastern branch of the Indus, at Luckput Bunder, during ebb, was not above a foot in depth, nor above six feet at flood, with about 100 yards of breadth. Such, however, was the change wrought by the earthquake, that the water deepened at Luckput to more than eighteen feet at low water, and on sounding the channel between Cutch and the Sinde shore, a distance of three or four miles, it was found to contain from four to ten feet of water. By the same convulsion, the Ali bund, or embankment, was damaged, and the navigation which had been closed for a long series of years, at that point re-opened.—(*Macmurdo, Capt. Maxfield, &c.*)

LUCKIPOOR (*Lackshmipur*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Tiperah, situated a few miles inland from the Great Megna, with which it communicates by a small river. Lat. 22° 56′ N., lon. 90° 43′ E., sixty miles S. by E. from the city of Dacca. Baftaes and other coarse goods of an excellent and substantial fabric are manufactured in this neighbourhood, which is also very fertile and productive, being, on the whole, one of the cheapest countries in the British dominions. Near Luckipoor, the river Megna expands to a breadth exceeding ten miles, and during the rainy season, when the shoaly islands are submerged, appears more like an inland sea of fresh water in motion, than a river. In A.D. 1763, it rose six feet above its usual level, and occasioned an inundation, that swept away the houses, cattle, and inhabitants of a whole subdivision of the district.

LUCKNOW (*Lackshminavati*).—A city in the province and kingdom of Oude, of which it is the capital, situated on the south side of the Goomty river, which is navigable for boats at all seasons of the year, and falls into the Ganges between Benares and Ghazipoor. Lat. 26° 51′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E.

When viewed from the summit of a lofty edifice, Lucknow presents a confusion of gilded cupolas and pinnacles, turrets, minarets, and arches, bounded by the winding Goomty, and so thickly interspersed with the

richest tropical foliage, as apparently to realize the most fantastic visions of Oriental splendour. A nearer inspection, however, does not fulfil the anticipations which a bird's-eye survey is calculated to excite. This capital may be divided into three quarters. The first is the city, properly so called, containing the shops and private dwellings of the inhabitants connected with the court and residency. The streets here are sunk ten or tweve feet below the surface, and are so narrow that two carts cannot pass; besides being filthy in the extreme. The chowk and one or two bazars in its vicinity, are good streets; but on the whole this extensive quarter is more meanly built than perhaps any city of the same rank in Hindostan. At the same time it exhibits an overflowing population, probably rather increased than diminished since A. D. 1800, when the total number was roughly estimated at 300,000 persons, including a swarm of well-fed and importunate beggars.

The second quarter of Lucknow was built mostly by the late nabob Saadet Ali. It stands near the Goomty, towards the south-east, and consists of one very handsome street, after the European fashion, above a mile in length, with bazars striking out at right angles, and a well-built new chowk in the centre, with a lofty gateway at each extremity, which presents a Grecian front on one side, and a Moorish one on the other. The houses that compose the remainder of this street belong to the king, and are occupied by members of his family, or officers of his household. These are for the most part in the English style, but with a strange occasional mixture of Eastern architecture. The same remark applies to the palaces and gardens that occupy the space between the street and the river, and reserved by his majesty for his own use. All these palaces are filled with European furniture and pictures, and may rank with comfortable English houses; but there are none on a scale of royal magnificence; not even that of of Furrahbuksh, the king's peculiar residence, which only excels the others in being approached through six spacious courts, with reservoirs, fountains, with innumerable peices of cast statuary, china figures, and other toys that decorate its area. The buildings of the British residency adjoin those of the Furrahbuksh, and terminate the great street to the north. At its opposite extremity is the entrance of the Delkusha park, an artificial wilderness of high grass, with which Saadet Ali clothed the arid tract between Lucknow and Constantia, and which, being well stocked with deer, antelopes, and peacocks, and regularly watered, is during the hot season the most refreshing spot in the neighbourhood of Lucknow.

The third quarter of this city adjoins the Goomty towards the north-west, being only separated by a wretched bazar from the second. It consists chiefly of the palaces and religious buildings erected by Asoph ud Dowlah and his predecessors, and being in a style more purely oriental than the modern structures, is by far the most interesting quarter to a stranger. The magnificent pile of the Imaum Barry, with its mosque and noble gateway (called the Roomee Derwaza) with the new palace, built, but never finished, by Saadet Ali, the Dowlet Khanah, and palaces of the Hyder Baugh, the Punj Mahal, Seesa Mahal, and Hossein Baugh, are the chief ornaments of this division of Lucknow. The body of Asoph ud Dowlah lies interred within the Imaum Barry, which is illuminated by a vast number of wax tapers, the grave is strewed with flowers, and covered with rich bread of barley from Mecca, with officiating priests in attendance to chaunt verses from the Koran, night and day.

Two bridges have been erected over the Goomty; one a heavy bridge of masonry, the other a bridge of platformed boats, having a moveable one in the centre, which is

opened for an hour daily. The project for erecting an iron bridge failed, in consequence of Saadet Ali's death. The materials arrived from England, but too late to admit of the works being executed during his life-time, and his heir, in conformity with a prejudice universal among the Mahomedans of Hindostan, declined the unlucky task of completing the unfinished undertaking of a deceased predecessor. Among other establishments, the king has a managerie, which in 1819 contained six rhinoceroses. These were kept distant from the general collection, being chained to the trees of a grove at some distance, on the opposite side of the Goomty, where there was also a wild elephant, and some Bactrian camels. One of the most extraordinary sights is the prodigious flocks of pigeons, maintained at the royal charge, and taught to direct their flight by signals, which the keeper makes partly with his voice, and partly with a small flag held in his hand. The British cantonments are situated to the east of the Goomty, and some miles distant from the city. Among the other curiosities in the neighbourhood, is Constantia, formerly the residence of General Claude Martine, which is said to have cost him £150,000 sterling. At Lucknow there is a considerable number of christians of different sorts; as besides those attached to the residency the king has a great number of Europeans and half-castes in his employ. There are also many tradesmen of both these descriptions, and a strange mixture of adventurers of all nations and sects, who ramble hither in the hope, generally a fruitless one, of finding employment.

Many of the old forms of the Mogul court are still retained and practised here; but that of giving and receiving offerings on presentation, is reduced to a mere phantom of what it once was. By a recent order all presents of silks, shawls, ornaments, or diamonds, whether made to ladies or gentlemen, are taken from them by the resident's servants, on leaving the palace, and sold for the benefit of government. Nothing is left but the silken cords, which the king throws round the necks of the visitors at parting; and books, which as nobody will buy them, remain the unmolested property of the presentee. Notwithstanding this privation, presents are still given and received, when such public marks of respect are thought necessary, but in a manner perfectly well understood by both parties. If a person of rank be introduced to the king, a tray of shawls is offered, accepted, and laid up in store at the residency. When the great man takes leave, on departing from Lucknow, he presents a similar nuzzur, which the East India Company supply, and which is always of superior value to that of the king. In this manner his majesty gets his own shawls, and something more restored to him; and except that the interchange costs the British government about 500 rupees, on a balance, the whole affair is reduced to a bow, and a fee to the king's servants.

On the death of the Nabob Shuja ud Dowlah, in 1775, his successor, Asoph ud Dowlah, removed the seat of government to this place from Fyzabad, the prior capital. The bankers and men of property accompanied the court, and Lucknow in a very few years became one of the largest and richest towns of Hindostan, while Fyzabad decayed with proportionate rapidity. Lucknow is mentioned by Abul Fazel as a considerable town, and is supposed to stand on the site of the renowned forest of Noimisha, where, in ancient times, Soota and his 60,000 Moonees (Hindoo saints) performed austere penance, heard the Puranas read, and listened to incredible stories. The travelling distance by the nearest road from Calcutta is 650 miles; and from hence to where the Ganges joins the ocean, all is one vast plain. Travelling distance from Delhi, 280; from Agra, 202, and from Benares, 180 miles.—(*Fullarton, Bishop Heber, Tennant, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

LUCKNOWTEE.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirteen miles N.E. from Kurnal. Lat. 29° 45′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E.

LUCONIA ISLE *(or Luzon)*.—The largest of the Philippines.—See LUZON.

LUDEEANNA.—A town in the province of Delhi, situated on the south bank of a small branch of the Sutuleje river, which separates from the main channel ten miles above, and rejoins at the same distance below Ludeeanna. Lat. 30° 55′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E., 115 miles S.E. from Lahore. During four months of the year, the weather in this vicinity is excessively cold, yet in the summer season the heat is intense, both seasons being in extremes; the rains are also abundant.

In consequence of the extension of the British possessions, in 1803, to the banks of the Sutuleje, the line of defence against the Seiks became much narrowed, and Lord Lake foretold that a small corps, well stationed in that quarter, would effectually protect the Doab and adjoining provinces against the incursions of that tribe. Ludeeanna was accordingly selected and fortified, and in 1808 made the head station of a brigade sufficiently strong both to cover the protected Seik chiefs, and impose respect on those situated north of the river. In 1811 the territory from Ludeeanna to Macowal, which is close under the high range of hills, were occupied by various chiefs who had been in possession many years, but who having also large estates on the opposite side of the Sutuleje, paid Runjeet Sing of Lahore a tribute or service to preserve the lands immediately subject to his control.—(*Lord Lake, Sir D. Ochterlony, &c.*)

LUDHONA.—A town in the province of Malwa, on the road to Nargher, which in 1820 contained about 500 houses, and belonged to the Raja of Seeta Mhow.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

LUDOWYK FORT.—A fort in the north coast of the island of Java, situated at the mouth of the eastern entrance of the straits of Madura. Lat. 7° S., lon. 112° 50′ E. The works here were constructed during the government of General Daendals, at a great expense and with infinite labour, and are of a most formidable description.

LUGHMAN.—An Afghan district in the province of Cabul, situated between the cities of Peshawer and Cabul, about the thirty-fourth degree of north latitude. It comprehends the vallies of Munderar, Alingar, Mishung, the plain of Jellalabad, and the surrounding mountains. This territory is remarkable for the variety and extremes of its climate. In the height of summer, while the plain of Jellalabad is tolerably sultry, and the wind almost suffocating, the mountain of Suffaid Coh lifts its head from the plain, crowned with everlasting snow. The nearest northern hills are cold, and the more remote covered with snow, while the table-land of Cabul to the west of Lughman enjoys the coolness and verdure of a temperate summer. Some portion of Lughman is a low rice country like Bengal.

The tribe of Afghans named the Deggauns, speak the language which is mentioned under the name of Lughmanee in the commentaries of Baber, the Ayeen Acberry, and other places. It is principally composed of Sanscrit and modern Persian, with some words of Pushtoo (Afghan), and a large mixture from some unknown root. Instead of counting by hundreds, in this dialect they count by scores, and their thousand is 400, or twenty score. In this they resemble the inhabitants of Caffristan, which gives reason to infer that the modern Lughmanees and Deggauns are Caffre tribes, converted to the Mahomedan religion. When invaded by Sebactaghi, A.D. 997, the inhabitants are asserted by Mahomedan authorities to have been Hindoos.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

LUNAWARA.—A town and petty

state in the province of Gujerat, sixty-three miles E. from Ahmedabad, lat. 23° 8′ N., lon. 73° 43′ E. The Lunawara territory composes part of the open country of Gujerat, partly situated on the right bank of the Mahy, and adjacent to some most important passes. To the south it is bounded by the Babi of Ballasinore's domains; north-west, by Morassy; to the northward by Doongurpoor, including the Gullacote districts; eastward, by Joonth; and southward, by Godra. It forms part of the five districts of Powaghur, from which, however, it is separated by a jungle range of hills, extending to near the Mahy river, the defiles through which are difficult, and infested by Bheel tribes. The length of this principality may be estimated at thirty-five miles from north to south, and about half that extent in breadth. The town and fortifications of Lunawara are three miles in circumference; the latter ascend the craggy side of a lofty range of hills, the summit of which is also fortified, which inspires the natives, who always connect elevation and security with a great opinion of its strength. It is also favourably situated for merchants proceeding from Rutlam and other parts of Malwa to Ahmedabad and the interior of Gujerat. On account of its geographical position and intersection by different chains of hills, it has also been found difficult of access by predatory horse, and escaped in consequence many destructive visits from the Maharattas.

In 1803, while Lunawara formed a depôt for the British army during its operations against Sindia, a treaty of protection was then concluded with the existing government exonerating it from the tribute paid to Sindia, but which afterwards, in 1806, was dissolved by the Bengal government under pretexts far from satisfactory, and the country abandoned to all the rapacity of that depredator. Lunawara was then considered as independent of Sindia, although a tributary, being a Moolukgeery, not a Khalsah district, an important distinction in Hindostan. Doubts having arose on this occasion, whether or not it was situated in Gujerat, the point was decided in the affirmative by Colonel Walker, after he had examined the records of the province deposited at Ahmedabad, the ancient capital.

Prior to 1803, the reigning rana of Lunawara was assassinated by his own ministry, and contentions arose, during which Sindia's troops were called in, and various murders committed; the result of which was, that the late rana's widow and Nanah Mehtah, her minister, in conjunction with Ghullah Bharot, her paramour, misgoverned this little community, at the date of Colonel Murray's approach in 1803. The widow dying in 1804, both parties endeavoured to gain the support of the British patronage, but without success. The reigning raja, in 1806, was under twenty years of age, of a delicate feminine appearance, puerile in his manners, already enervated in body, and without energy of mind, existing a mere pageant in the hands of his ministers. Neither was he a descendant of the late rana's, but merely a Rajpoot child adopted by his widow. The legitimate prince was then supposed to be alive and residing at Doongurpoor. The family is of the Salonka tribe of Rajpoots. In 1820, the rana of Lunawara's income was estimated at 40,473 rupees per annum, and that of his subordinate chiefs, 40,000 rupees per annum. He had for many years previous been tributary both to the Guicowar and to Sindia. — (*Burr, Elphinstone, Treaties, &c.*)

LUNGPOOR. — A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, twenty-one miles S.S.W. from Serinagur; lat. 29° 54′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E., 6,367 feet above the level of the sea.

LUZON ISLE (*or Luçonia*).—The largest and most populous of the Philippines, on which stands Manilla, the metropolis. This island is situated between the 13th and 19th degrees of north latitude, and extends

from the 120th to the 124th of east longitude. It is of a very irregular form, but may be estimated at 400 miles in length, by 115 the average breadth.

A large proportion of Luzon is mountainous, being intersected from north to south by an immense chain, from which diverge various spurs and ramifications that spread over the whole island; in some places forming detached mountains, resembling insulated cones, in the midst of wide plains. The whole of this elevated region occupying great part of the interior, is either a wilderness or inhabited by a wild people, under no control from the Spanish government.

There are in Luzon several volcanoes, particularly that of Mayore, between the provinces of Albay and Camarines, which has the figure of a sugar-loaf, and is of such altitude that it is visible a great distance at sea. For thirteen years it had maintained the most profound silence, and had exhibited so few symptoms of internal commotion that its side and summit were covered with habitations and pleasure gardens. In this state of quiescence it continued until 1814, by which time all the former damages it had caused were nearly obliterated. In the month of February, *in that year, it again burst forth* with tremendous violence, throwing up immense quantities of stones, sand, and ashes, which obscured the sun, while subterranean thunder rolled. This eruption lasted ten days, the whole of which time it was nearly dark and when it cleared up disclosed a horrid scene of ruin and desolation. The De Taal volcano is of a similar form with the above, and stands in the middle of a large lake named Bombon. Its present appearance indicates as if the mountain, on the summit of which was the volcano, had sunk; leaving a portion still considerably elevated above the waters of the surrounding lake.

In this vicinity there are many warm springs and small lakes, indicating an internal combustion, from which, probably, originate the earthquakes to which the island is subject. Dr. Clark Abel in 1820, found the waters of the different hot springs at the village of Los Bagnos, on the southern bank of the great lake, whence issues the river Passig, of the following temperatures: No. 1, 174°; No. 2, 168°; No. 3, 164°; and the temperature of a large stream at its junction with the lake was 168° Fahrenheit. A small plant, apparently a species of arenaria, vegetated in a soil, which raised a thermometer, plunged among its roots, to 110°, on the side of a spring, the heat of which was 120°. From numerous orifices ashes, stones, sand, water, and lava, are ejected, inundating and destroying the neighbouring fields. In 1650 an earthquake happened, which overturned almost all Manilla, with the exception of the church and convent of St. Augustine. In one part of the island a hill was heaved up from its foundation, and fell on a town, burying under its mass all the inhabitants. In some parts the earth sunk, in others torrents of sand burst forth, overwhelming man and beast; and the successive earthquakes lasted sixty days. In 1754 there happened another terrible earthquake, when the Taal threw out such immense quantities of cinders as completely to ruin four towns. Many other severe shocks followed, accompanied by loud reports, like the artillery of contending squadrons, and the atmosphere was entirely obscured by the sand and ashes discharged.

With respect to the climate of Luzon, although within the tropics it is generally salubrious for nine months of the year, and during the rains cool and refreshing. Cagayan and the northern districts are the most healthy, and to them invalids resort from Manilla, which, not being cool, is occasionally sultry. In the rainy monsoon, however, the southern tracts are preferred as being more sheltered from the strong westerly gales prevalent at that season. The

months of December, January, February, and March, are remarkably pleasant; April variable, especially towards its conclusion, when typhons and hurricanes are frequent, the wind making the whole circle of the compass, and blowing with astonishing fury. About the middle of May, the south-western monsoon is well set in, and continues until the first week in October, when the weather again becomes variable. In general, October and November are the most unhealthy months in the year; the sun being still nearly vertical, and the weather intensely hot, while exhalations steam from the ground, occasioning fevers, fluxes, and other malignant distempers.

The sea-coast of Luzon is indented by many bays and commodious harbours, but that of Manilla, which is one of the finest in the world, is the only one frequented by ships of burthen. There are several lakes, the most considerable of which is named by the Spaniards Laguna de Baya. The Manilla river (or Passia) which may be ascended in boats, issues from this lake, which is said to be forty-five leagues in circumference, and its waters fresh. In the middle of the lake is an island, where many Indian families reside, who subsist by fishing, and are described as being of a gentle disposition, and somewhat disposed to industry. Although converted by the Spaniards they preserve their ancient laws and customs, by which they continue to be regulated, each village being superintended by one of their chiefs, nominated by the viceroy.

To the east of this lake there are said to be extensive plains, thinly scattered over with villages, and intersected by deep streams, where the natives carry on unceasing warfare against each other, tribe with tribe, village with village. Many expeditions have been undertaken by the Spaniards against the mountain Indians of Luzon, but to such little purpose that they remain independent to this hour. They carry on a small traffic with the Spaniards, in gold, wax, and tobacco, and the Augustine Friars have succeeded in converting those who dwell in hamlets near the mountains. Besides these Indian Tagalas, there are in the central parts a race of woolly-headed pigmies, who have not any permanent residence, but roam about like the beasts of the field, and like the birds roost on trees. Occasionally the revenue officers surprise, catch, and bring some of them to Manilla; but they always effect their escape, or pine to death in confinement, although treated in the mildest manner. By the Spaniards they are called Negretos de monte.

Before the Spaniards arrived, the district in the neighbourhood of Manilla was occupied by the Tagala nation, and governed by petty chiefs. To the north of this people were the Pampangas, the Zambales, the Pangasinan, the Ylocos, and the Cayagan tribes. Each of these nations formed a different community, with a peculiar dialect of the same language, and distributed in mud villages, without a king or supreme head, the authority being possessed by numberless petty chiefs and rajas, whose control was seldom acknowledged by more than from fifty to a hundred families. After the conquest, the territory of each of these nations was formed into a province, and a Spanish alcalde, mayor, appointed to govern it. To the east of the Tagala are the Camarines, whose country has been subdivided into two districts; that of Albay, and that of Camarines, each under an alcaldi mayor. In the vicinity of Manilla, the original races are now much intermixed with Chinese. In 1798, the creoles of a mixed blood were estimated at 200,000; the Sanglays, or Chinese descendants, above 20,000; and the Indians, who called themseves original Tagalas, 340,000: the total population about 600,000 persons.

The Spaniards have several establishments scattered over the island, consisting principally of monks, for the propagation of the Roman Catho-

lic religion. The natives under their rule exist in a state of sloth and inactivity, and appear alike indifferent to virtue or vice. Indolence and timidity are the characteristics of the great majority; but as there are parts which the Spaniards have never been able to subdue, they are probably possessed by tribes of more energetic qualities. The island of Luzon is naturally one of the most fertile on the face of the globe, and capable of producing every tropical commodity (more especially sugar, indigo, and opium) in the most exuberant redundance. Indeed, were it better governed and cultivated, it might support ten times the population it now possesses, and reign paramount over the neighbouring archipelago. As it is, the inhabitants are comparatively few in number, destitute of energy, and despised by their neighbours, the Malay pirates, who have long considered Luzon, and the other Philippines, as the quarter from whence slaves may be procured with the least risk, and in the greatest abundance.—(*Zuniga, Sonnerat, Blackwood's Magazine, Abel, La Peyrouse, Calcutta Journal, &c.*)

Lyson.—Wild unknown tribes, adjacent to Yunan, in China, and supposed to be situated between 25 and 26° N., and 97° and 98° E. The Sampoo river has been conjectured to flow through their country.

M.

Maat.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-seven miles N. by W. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 39′ N., lon. 77° 33′ E.

Macao.—A Portuguese settlement in China, situated on a peninsula, which projects from the south end of a large peninsula, in the district of Heong-shan, province of Quanton (or Canton); lat. 22° 13′ N., lon. 113° 32′ E. The peninsula extends from the barrier, south, 1,700 yards; the distance from the N.E. to the S.W. point is 3,300 yards. The town is built on two ridges of moderate elevation, running south-east and north-west, forming a triangle, the hypotheneuse of which it is the inner harbour. The two sides may be taken each at 1,400 feet, the base at 1,714 yards. From the inner harbour to that part of the praya granda or the beach, where the government house stands, the distance is 700 yards, which may be considered as the average breadth of the town. The low sandy isthmus, 200 yards broad, connecting the peninsula with the large island, is separated by a wall, originally constructed in 1573, and marks the line beyond which foreigners are not allowed to pass. Near a Chinese temple the breadth of the isthmus expands to about 400 yards.

The market is well supplied with grain and vegetables by the Chinese, by whom all the arts of comfort or convenience are exercised, the Portuguese being devoted to trade and navigation. The harbour, however, does not admit vessels of great burthen, which generally anchor six or seven miles off the town, bearing W.N.W. If there be any women on board application must be made to the bishop and synod at Macao for permission to land them, as they will not be permitted by the Chinese to go further up the river. A voyage from Macao to Calcutta, taking the inside passage to the west of the Paracels, generally lasts a month; but it has been made in twenty-five days. The Portuguese inhabitants still fit out a few vessels, and lend their names, for a trifling consideration, to foreigners belonging to the Canton factories, who require to be nominally associated with the Portuguese, to be allowed to trade from the port. The money spent in the settlement by the Canton factors, who live hospitably, is also of great advantage. In 1822, the Portuguese portion of the resident free population amounted to 4315 persons, besides all other classes, the total probably exceeding 15,000.

The public administration is vested in a senate composed of the bishop, the judge, and a few of the principal inhabitants; but the Chinese mandarin is the real governor. The bishop has great sway, and contributes to give a tone of devotion to religious observances, which are the only material occupation of a great majority of the catholic laity. There are consequently a disproportionate number of churches, chapels, and monasteries, besides a convent of about forty nuns, and missionaries from France and Italy. The Chinese possess two temples at Macao, which are so overshadowed by thick trees, as not to be visible at a distance. The Portuguese are in fact kept in such subordination by the Chinese, that they dare not repair a house without their permission. Whenever resistance is attempted, the mandarin who commands in a little fort within sight of Macao, stops the supply of provisions until they submit.

There is a cave below the loftiest eminence in the town called Camoens' cave, from a tradition current in the settlement, that this celebrated poet wrote the Lusiad in that spot. This cave is now in a garden, opposite to which, in the middle of the harbour, is a small circular island, formerly the property of the Jesuits. On this island, a church, college, and observatory were erected; but all these improvements decayed with the society, and are now scarcely to be traced. The harbour in which this little island lies is called inner harbour, by way of distinction from the outer bay, where ships are exposed to bad weather, more especially during the north-eastern monsoon. Mariners assert that this bay is gradually filling up: on one side it opens into a basin, formed by four islands, in which Lord Anson's ship lay to be repaired, but no such ship could enter it at present.

The Portuguese first obtained possession of Macao in A.D. 1586. At this period a pirate had seized an adjacent island, but was expelled by the Portuguese: in gratitude for which the reigning Chinese Emperor made them a gift of the small peninsula, on which the town now stands. —(*Staunton, Elmore, La Peyrouse, &c.*)

MACASSAR (*Mangkasar or Guah*). —A kingdom on the south-west coast of the kingdom of Celebes, which before its conquest by the Dutch, comprehended a great extent of country. The power of this state was at its height about the middle of the seventeenth century, when its princes not only governed a great part of Celebes, but also many of the adjacent islands and principalities. The Portuguese obtained a footing here so early as A.D. 1512, at which period the Mahomedan religion does not appear to have been introduced; but we have not any information regarding the prior doctrines of the inhabitants, who appear, however, to have attained a considerable degree of civilization. Subsequently, the Malays being allowed to colonize, erected a mosque, and their religion thence forward made such progress, that in 1603, the Macassar raja, with the whole Macassar nation, renounced their ancient faith, and not only adopted that of the Arabian prophet, but compelled a number of the inferior states to imitate their example.

In 1615, the English, who then always followed other nations, visited Macassar, and concluded a treaty with the king. In 1624, Tommadenga, sovereign of Guah Macassar, sailed with a fleet and subdued Booton, Bongai, the Xulla Isles, Baru, and Kute, and concluded an arrangement with Bali. He also struck the first gold coin seen in Celebes. In 1654, the able and renowned Krong-gron was prime minister of Macassar. In 1665, the Macassars fitted out a fleet of 700 vessels, and 20,000 men, for the conquest of Booton and the Xulla Isles; after which a great decline appears to have taken place, as in 1669, the Dutch and their allies, the Buggesses of Bony, took Samba-

opo, their best fortress, which terminated the predominence of the Macassars in Celebes. In 1710, proving refractory, they were reduced by the same parties to entire subjection. Of the kings of Macassar, there have reigned in all thirty-nine sovereigns, down to the year 1809. A prince or chief is here named Craing, and the supreme head of their aristocratic federation Crainga. The constitution (if such it may be called) is one of the anamolous aristocratic federations, which are almost universal in Celebes.

The Macassars, like all the other Buggess tribes are much addicted to maritime traffic and a seafaring life. Many prows of about twenty-five tons each sail annually with the north-west monsoon, for the Gulf of Carpentaria, in New Holland, to fish for biche-de-mar, named also tripang, swalow, sea-slug, and sea-cucumber. This is an unseemly looking substance of a dirty brown colour, scarcely possessing locomotion, or any symptoms of animation. Some are occasionally seen two feet long and eight inches in circumference, but the ordinary size is a span long and two or three inches in girth. It is procured by diving in from two to three fathoms water; the animal is then split down one side, boiled, and pressed with a weight of stones. It is then stretched open with pieces of bamboo, dried in the sun, and afterwards in smoke. The value of the reptile depends on occult qualities which none but Chinese traders can discover, and their commercial classification is both minute and curious, no less than thirty distinct varieties being particularized. The ultimate profit from this traffic rests exclusively with the Chinese, although the actual fishery be carried on by the Macassar and Buggess tribes, who catch the animal among the coral ledges along the coast of New Holland. The prows afterwards rendezvous at *Timor Laut*, proceed thence to Macassar, from whence it is forwarded to China. The quantity despatched annually has been estimated at about 8,333 cwt.; and the price varies from 8 to 110 Spanish dollars per pical of 133 lbs according to quality.—(*Crawfurd, Stavorinus, Flinders, Forrest, Marsden, &c.*)

MACASSAR (*or Guah Macassar*). The chief settlement of the Dutch, on the island of Celebes, named by them Fort Rotterdam, and situated on the south-west coast; lat. 5° 10′ S., lon. 119° 20′ E. The fort here is irregular and ancient, but considered by the natives impregnable. Towards the sea face is a strong battery, which commands the roads to a great distance. Unlike most Dutch settlements the surrounding country is elevated and healthy, and the harbour so deep that ships may lie within pistol-shot of the shore. The only portion of Celebes that carries on a direct traffic with China is Macassar, for which port two junks of 500 tons each, or one large one of 1,000, sail annually from Amoy.—(*Thorn, Crawfurd, &c.*)

MACASSAR (*straits of*).—This arm of the sea, for it cannot with propriety be called a strait, separates the island of Borneo from that of Celebes, and extends above 300 miles from north to south, with a breadth in general exceeding 120 miles, except at the northern extremity where it contracts to about sixty miles. This part of the eastern Archipelago abounds with shoals, rocks, and rocky islands, yet it is much frequented by ships bound to China late in the season, the western passage along the coast of Borneo being the safest and best explored. In January and February strong winds generally blow from the north-ward, forcing a current through this strait to the southward.

MACCLESFIELD SHOAL.—A shoal in the eastern seas, situated principally between the fifteenth and sixteenth degrees of north latitude, and the 114th and 115th of east longitude. The depth of water is not less than ten, and in many places more than fifty fathoms.

MACHELPOOR. — A town in the

province of Malwa, pergunnah of Kilcheepoor, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained 420 houses. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MACHEEWARA.—A town in the province of Delhi, seventeen miles E. of Ludeeanna, and four miles S. of the Sutuleje river; lat. 30° 55′ N., lon. 76° 15′ E.

MACHERLA. — A town in the Northern Circars, division of Palnand, seventy-six miles west from the town of Guntoor; lat. 16° 27′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E.

MACHERRY (*principality of*).—See ALVAR.

MACOWAL (*Makhaval*).—A town in the province of Lahore, forty miles N.E. from Ludeeanna; lat. 31° 5′ N., lon. 76° 21′ E. It is also named Ahunpoor Macowal. This was the first town acquired by the Seiks, during the government of Gooroo Govind, their priest militant.

MACIAN ISLE.—A small island, one of the Philippines, about ten miles in circumference, situated to the east of Zebu Isle; lat. 10° 30′ N., lon. 123° 48′ E. Magellan was killed here in A.D. 1821, when on his return from America by a westerly course.

MADHIGESHY DROOG.—A fortress in the Mysore province, fifty miles S.E. from Chitteldroog; lat. 13° 50′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E. It stands on a rock of very difficult access, at the base of which is a fortified town, which in A.D. 1800 contained about 200 houses.

MADGERYDROOG (*Madu giri durga*). — A hill-fort in the Mysore raja's territories, fifty-five miles N. by W. from Bangalore; lat. 13° 40′ N., lon. 77° 15′ E. This is a bold and naked peak of granite rock, projecting from a range of mountains to the southward, and rising in a solid pyramidical mass, to the height of at least 1,500 feet above the plain. Seven distinct lines of fortification may be descried from below, towering one above the other to the very summit; and the natives here assert that eighteen gateways must be passed through to the top; the ascent to which, however, is rarely attempted on account of its difficulty. There is a lower fort on a line with the pettah, below the Droog, in which the walls of a pettah, built by Mul Raja (the founder of the whole) are still standing. The town is much decayed, but still contains two magnificent pagodas, one dedicated to Siva, and the other to Krishna; the latter provided with accommodations on an extensive scale, for the reception of devotees. There is also a remarkable Jain temple.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MADAPOLLAM. — A town in the northern Circars, situated in a populous country, thirty-three miles E.N.E. from Musulipatam; lat. 16° 25′ N., lon. 81° 45′ E. In this neighbourhood the manufacture of long cloth is carried on to a considerable extent.

MADHAJRAJPOOR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-four miles S.S.E. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 25° 35′ N., lon. 75° 30′ E. In A.D. 1818, this place was occupied by a refractory feudatory of the Jeypoor rajas, and was taken by assault by a British detachment, although it had previously resisted Ameer Khan for a whole year.

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The territories subject to the presidency of Fort St. George, or Madras, comprehend the whole of Hindostan south of the Krishna, together with some tracts acquired since the expulsion of the ex-Peshwa Bajerow to the north of that river, and also a large province of the Deccan named the Northern Circars. These are under the direct management and control of the British government; but the boundaries above stated include also princes, who collect the revenues, and exercise a certain degree of power in the internal management of their respective dominions, although with reference to external politics they are wholly sub-

ordinate to the British power, are protected by a subsidiary force, and furnish large annual contributions. The rest of this extensive region is under the immediate jurisdiction of the governor and council of Madras; and, for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue, was subdivided into districts, which in 1822 existed as follows:

	Population.
Ganjam (no return)	—
Vizagapatam	772,570
Rajamundry	738,308
Masulipatam	529,849
Guntoor	454,754
Nellore	439,467
Bellary	927,857
Cuddapah	1,094,460
Chingleput	363,129
Northern division of Arcot	892,292
Southern division of Arcot	455,020
Salem	1,075,985
Tanjore	901,353
Trichinopoly	481,292
Madura and Dindigul	601,293
Shevagunga	186,903
Tinnevelly	564,957
Coimbatoor	638,199
Canara	657,594
Malabar	907,575
Seringapatam	31,612
Madras city and jurisdiction	462,051
	13,176,520
Suppose the population of Ganjam	500,000
Grand total under the Madras presidency, from the returns made by the collectors in 1822, exclusive of the population of Mysore, Travancore, and Cochin	13,676,520

The area comprehending the above divisions may be roughly estimated at 166,000 square miles; but since the year 1822, recent as it is, so many important alterations have taken place in the topography of the districts, that the above statement furnishes no accurate idea of their present statistical condition. The zillah courts of north and south Malabar have been consolidated together; that of Trichinopoly with the adjoining one of Combooconum; Tinnevelly with Madura, and the five zillah courts of the Northern Circars reduced to two; while the emoluments of the collectors, and their magisterial authority, have been greatly increased.

The provinces subject to the government of Fort St. George, with the exception of Canara, Malabar, and other districts, in which traces of private property still existed when acquired by the British, exhibited nearly the same system of landed property and revenue policy. The land was the property of government, and of the ryots and cultivators; but when the share of government absorbed nearly the whole of the landlords' rents, the ryots possessed little more interest in the soil than that of hereditary tenancy. The country was subdivided into villages. A village (in this part of India), geographically, is a tract of country comprising some hundreds or thousands of acres of arable and waste land; politically, a village is a little republic or corporation, having within itself its municipal officers and corporate artificers. Its boundaries are seldom altered; and though sometimes injured, and even desolated by war, famine, and epidemics, the same name, boundaries, interest, and families, continue for ages. The government share of the crop was generally received from rice-lands in kind, at rates varying from forty to sixty per cent. of the gross produce, deducting certain portions distributed before the threshing commences. The share of government from dry grain land was generally received in cash, varying with the produce.

The judicial system was introduced in 1802, but cannot be said to have taken effect until 1803. The alterations in the judicial system subsequently recommended by the commission of revision, commenced and had a partial operation in 1816. Munsiffs, or village judges, had pre-

viously been introduced; and although little was done by them individually, compared with European exertions, the aggregate was found to be great, as will be seen from the following short statement:

Number of suits settled by the Zillah and Native Courts, *viz.*

	By Europ. Judges, Assists., and Registers.	By the Native Judicatories.	Total.
1813	4,663	24,888	29,551
1814	5,317	26,717	32,034
1815	7,928	30,687	38,615
1816	7,195	39,714	46,909
1817	4,749	66,302	71,051

The Madras government tried the experiment of punchaits (native juries of five), with the modifications recommended by its warmest advocates, and it failed. The new system commenced operations in 1816, from which period, in the course of two years and a half, there were 156,879 suits decided; of which, 146,538 were determined by district and village munsiffs, and only 693 by punchait. The principle sanctioned by the general practice of India, that every village must find a head to discharge the duty of executing the public business in the manner that may be required by government, has latterly been more strictly maintained, and without exciting any discontent; for although potails and village servants frequently complain against the officers of government, they never murmur against what they consider the acts of the government itself. The decennial revenue leases were ordered to be made with the head inhabitants of the villages, and this has with few exceptions been done. In all the decennial lease districts, therefore, as well as those out of lease, forming by far the greater portion of the Madras territories, the ancient heads of villages remain, and have become munsiffs. All the early decennial village leases would expire on or before 1821.

Besides the land revenue, the other sources from whence the public receipts of the Madras government are drawn consist of the government customs both by sea and land; the latter being levied on the articles of inland trade, on their transit through the country, and on their entrance into particular towns; of monopoly of the sale and manufacture of salt; of the licensed sale of toddy and arrack; and, in some parts of the country, of the licensed sale of betel and tobacco; and of stamp duties and fees on judicial proceedings. The mode and principles according to which these branches of the public resources are conducted, are similar to those that obtain under the Bengal government. The following table is an abstract of the gross public revenue, under the heads for the year 1816-17, as applicable to the existing arrangement of the districts:

	Star Pagodas.
1. Ganjam	312,956
2. Vizagapatam	432,136
Dutch possessions in do.	432
3. Rajamundry	674,550
French and Dutch possessions in do.	6,748
4. Masulipatam	386,043
5. Guntoor, includ. Palnaud	412,738
6. Chingleput	413,034
Dutch possessions in do.	2,031
7. Salem and Barramahal	519,458
8. Madura	541,335
9. Nellore and Ongole	688,528
10. Northern div. of Arcot	734,325
Dutch possessions in do.	735
11. Southern div. of Arcot	647,954
Pondicherry, in do.	12,988
12. Tanjore	1,086,641
Foreign possess. in do.	5,899
13. Trichinopoly	493,730
14. Tinnevelly	564,131
Dutch possess. in do.	7,291
15. Bellary	981,221
16. Cuddapah	758,083
17. Coimbatoor	666,894
18. Canara	718,085
19. Malabar	677,045
French and Dutch possessions in do.	3,432
20. Seringapatam	19,628
21. Madras	281,603
Total	12,050,990

Since the completion of the arrangements for the government of

the extensive territories subject to this presidency, one circumstance has peculiarly contributed to improve the condition of the great body of the natives, which is, the vigour and efficiency of the administration, neither permitting nor acknowledging divided rights of sovereignty, but keeping every other power in due subordination. The beneficial operation of this decided conduct has been greatly felt in Bengal, but much more on the coast of Coromandel, arising from the greater degree in which a turbulent and warlike spirit pervaded the zemindars, poligars, and other native chieftains. While these maintained their military retainers and establishments, they not only bid defiance to government, but were constantly carrying on petty wars against each other, by which the fields of the cultivator were overrun and laid waste, his crops destroyed, and whatever other property he possessed fell a sacrifice to the predatory bands of the contending parties. At present there exists not any military force of the slightest importance kept up by individuals. The unruly and rapacious spirit of the poligar has given way to the more peaceable habits of the landholder, and the peasant is enabled to pursue the cultivation of his lands without danger or apprehension. The evils that were formerly continual are now only occasionally experienced, and promptly and efficaciously suppressed by a vigorous government, whose duty it is to insure equal protection to all ranks of its subjects.—(*Fifth Report, Public MS. Documents, Sir T. Munro, Hodgson, Falconar, R. Grant, &c.*)

MADRAS (*Mandirraj*).—A city in the Carnatic province, the capital of the British possessions in the south of India, and part of the Deccan; lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 80° 21′ E. The approach to Madras from the sea is very striking; the low flat sandy shores extending to the north and the south, and the small hills that are seen inland, the whole exhibiting an appearance of barrenness, which is much improved on closer inspection. The beach seems alive with the crowds that cover it. The public offices and store-houses erected near the shore are fine buildings, with colonnades to the upper stories, supported on arched bases, and covered with the beautiful shell-mortar of Coromandel, hard, smooth, and polished. Within a few yards of the sea, the walls and bastions of Fort St. George present an interesting appearance, and at a distance minarets, churches, and pagodas, are seen mixed with trees. With all these external advantages, it would be difficult to find a worse situation for a capital than Madras, situated as it is on the margin of a coast where a rapid current runs, and against which a tremendous surf beats, even in the mildest weather. The site of Pondicherry is in every respect superior, and is placed in a rich and productive country, besides having the advantage of being to windward during the most important monsoon, the loss of which was severely felt by the British, during the hard-fought wars of the eighteenth century.

The boats used for crossing the surf are large and light, being made of three planks sewed together, with straw in the seams instead of caulking, which it is supposed would render them too stiff; the great object being to have them as flexible as possible to yield to the waves like leather. When within the influence of the surf, the coxswain stands up and beats time, with great agitation, with his foot and voice, while the rowers work their oars backwards, until overtaken by a strong surf curling up, which sweeps the boat along with frightful violence. Every oar is then plied forwards with the utmost vigour, to prevent the wave taking the boat back as it recedes, until at length by a few successive surfs it is dashed high and dry on the beach. The boats belonging to the ships sometimes proceed to the back of the surf, where they anchor outside of it, and wait for the country boats

from the beach to convey their passengers on shore. When the weather is so unsettled as to make it dangerous, even for the country boats to pass and repass, a flag is displayed at the beach house, to caution all persons on board ship against landing. Large ships used to moor in nine fathoms, with the flag-staff west-north-west, about two miles from the shore, latterly, however, they anchor mostly on the north beach. From the begining of October to the end of December, is considered the most dangerous season to remain in the Madras roads.

The fishermen and lower classes employed on the water, use a species of floating machine of a very simple construction, named a catamaran. These are formed of two or three light logs of wood, eight or ten feet in length lashed together, with a small piece of wood inserted between them to serve as a stem piece. When ready for the water they hold two men, who with their paddles launch themselves through the surf, to carry letters, or refreshments in small quantities, to ships, when no boat can venture out. They wear a pointed cap made of matting, where they secure the letters, which take no damage, however often the men are washed off the catamaran, which they regain by swimming, unless interrupted by a shark. Medals are given to such catamaran men as distinguish themselves by saving persons in danger.

Madras differs considerably in appearance from Calcutta, having properly no European town, except a few houses in the fort, the settlers residing entirely in their garden houses, repairing in the morning to their offices in the black town, for the transaction of business, and returning in the afternoon. Fort St. George, as it at present stands, was planned by Mr. Robins, the celebrated engineer, and is a strong and handsome fortress, not too large. It is situated within a few yards of the surf, and although not so extensive or so regular in design as Fort William at Calcutta, yet from the greater facility of relieving it by sea, and the natural advantages of the ground, which leaves the enemy little choice in the manner of conducting his attack, it may on the whole be deemed equal to it, and has the convenience of requiring but a moderate garrison, generally consisting of one European regiment and four battalions of native infantry. The fort formerly enclosed not only many of the public offices, but also some streets of private European dwelling-houses, shops, and stores. Within the last twenty years, the greater part of these buildings have been cleared away, and the merchants and tradesmen have removed their establishments to the new streets that have been opened in the north-east quarter of the black town, and along the skirts of the esplanade. A noble range of public edifices, including a custom-house, office for the board of trade, court-house, &c., now adorn the north beach, and a mound of massy stones to act as a breakwater and protect them against the fury of the surf, has been constructed. The whole space of the south beach, intervening between the black town and the sea, has been at the same time converted to a green lawn, separated from the road by posts and chains, planted with trees, and the water-courses in every direction traversed by handsome bridges. Within the fort, besides the barracks, the arsenal and a mean bazar for the supply of the garrison, there remain only the council-house, the old church, and a few other edifices not strictly connected with military objects. Among these is the large structure called the exchange, but disused as such for many years, on which, in 1796, a light-house was elevated ninety feet above the level of the sea, and visible from ships' decks seventeen miles from the the shore. A fine marble statute of the Marquis Cornwallis has been raised in the centre of the great square, but in 1820 it seemed to

have already suffered from the climate, which does not, as in Europe, admit the exposure of such delicate works in the open air.

The government house, which is large and handsome, with a separate building annexed, called the banqueting-house, is in the Choultry plain, being situated on the edge of the esplanade; and near to it are the Chepauk gardens, the residence of the nabob of the Carnatic, which intercept the sea-breeze, and confine the view. A mosque of grey stone, with five arches in front, and two handsome minars, stands by the road side near the nabob's premises, and is the only Mahomedan structure of any note at Madras. The garden-houses about Madras are generally only of one story, but of a pleasing style of architecture, having their porticos and verandas supported by chunamed pillars. The walls are of the same materials, either white or coloured, and the floors are covered with rattan mats. They are surrounded by a field planted with trees and shrubs, which have changed the barren sand of the Carnatic into a rich scene of vegetation; but flowers and fruits are still raised with difficulty. During the rains, mats made of the roots of the cusa, a sweet smelling grass, are placed against the opened doors and windows, and kept wet, so that the air blows through them, and spreads an agreeable freshness and fragrance throughout the room. The moment, however, the cooling influence of the mats is quitted, the sensation is like entering a furnace, although, taking the average of the whole year, Madras experiences less extreme heat than Calcutta. From a correct register of the weather kept at Madras prior to 1811, it appeared that no rain had fallen there in the month of March, during a period of thirteen years.

The botanic garden, reared at a vast expense, by the late Dr. James Anderson, is now in a sad state of ruin. On the 9th of December, 1807, Madras was visited by a dreadful hurricane, which destroyed the garden; and the loss may be considered a national one. Many natives were involved in great misery by the storm; but it had a singular effect on one individual. After the hurricane had subsided, a native woman raised a pile of wood in a gentleman's coach-house, and getting underneath it with her child, had the desperate resolution to set fire to it, and thus burned herself and child to ashes. Among the remaining plants are still to be seen the sago-tree, and the nopal, or prickly pear, on which the cochineal insect feeds, and which Dr. Anderson discovered to be an excellent anti-scorbutic. It has since been used as such on board the ships of war on the Indian station. This plant (the nopal) keeps fresh, and even continues to vegetate long after it is gathered, and it also makes an excellent pickle for a long sea voyage.

The Choultry plain commences about a mile and a quarter S.W. of Fort St. George, from which it is separated by two small rivers. The one called the river Triplicane, winding from the west, gains the sea about 1,000 yards south of the glacis; the other coming from the N.W. passes the western side of the Black town, the extremity of which is high ground, which the river rounds, and continues to the east within 100 yards of the sea, where it washes the foot of the glacis, and then turning to the south, continues parallel with the beach until it joins the mouth and bar of the river Triplicane. The Choultry plain extends two miles to the westward of the enclosures that bound the St. Thomé road, and terminates on the west side, at a large body of water called the Meliapoor tank, behind which runs, with deep windings, the Triplicane river. The road from the mount passes for two miles and a half, under the mound of the tank, and at its issue into the Choultry plain is a kind of defile, formed by the mound on one side, and buildings with brick enclosures on the other.

In the neighbourhood of Madras, the soil, when well cultivated, produces a

good crop of rice, provided the usual quantity of rain falls in the wet season; and in some places the industry of the natives, by irrigation, creates a pleasing verdure. In appearance the country is almost as level as Bengal, and in general exhibits a naked, brown, dusty plain, with few villages or any relief to the eye, except a range of abrupt detached hills towards the south. The roads in the vicinity of Madras are excellent and ornamental, being broad and shaded with trees. The huts seen at a little distance from town are covered with tiles, and have a better appearance than those of Bengal, and the inns and choultries, which are common on the roads, evince an attention to travellers not to be found in that watery province. A considerable extent of land, although at present naked, seems capable of raising trees and hedges, and shows symptoms of being in a progressive state of improvement. Near to Condatura the country assumes a very pleasing aspect; numerous canals from the Saymbrumbacum tank convey a constant supply of water to most of the neighbouring fields, and fertilize them without the help of machinery, in consequence of which they yield two rice crops per annum. In 1803, a navigable canal was opened from the Black town to Ennore river, 10,560 yards in length; the greatest breadth at the top forty feet, and the greatest depth twelve feet. The cattle in the neighbourhood of Madras are of the species common in the Deccan, and are a small breed, but larger than those reared in the southern parts of Bengal. In the vicinity of Madras buffaloes are generally used in carts, but of a smaller breed than the gigantic and unmanageable buffaloes of Bengal.

The society of Madras is more limited than that of Calcutta, but the style of living is much the same, except that provisions of all sorts are much less abundant and more expensive. During the cold season there are monthly assemblies, usually held in a building called the Pantheon, erected in the suburb of Vepery, which likewise comprehends a small theatre for amateur performances, and occasional balls take place throughout the whole year. Among the public places of resort is the Mount Road, leading from the Fort to St. Thomas's Mount, which is quite smooth, with banyan and yellow tulip trees planted on each side. These decorations, in addition to its spacious breadth, and the uninterrupted succession of garden-houses for some miles, produce a scene not to be surpassed in effect by any thing of the kind in India. Five miles from Fort St. George stands a cenotaph in a wretched style of architecture, to the memory of the Marquis Cornwallis, the erection of which cost a very large sum. It is customary for the ladies and gentlemen of Madras to repair in their gayest equipages, during the cool of the evening, to the Mount Road, where they drive slowly around the cenotaph, and converse together. But the greatest lounge at this presidency is during visiting hours, from nine o'clock in the morning until eleven, during which interval, the young men go about from house to house, learn and retail the news, and offer their services to execute commissions in the city, to which they must repair for purposes of business. When these functionaries retire, a troop of idlers appear, and remain until tiffen-time at two o'clock, when the real dinner is eaten. The party then separates, and many withdraw to rest, or read until five o'clock, about which time the master of the family returns from the fort, when an excursion to the Mount Road, and dinner afterward concludes the day, unless prolonged by a ball and supper at night.

On landing at Madras passengers are immediately surrounded by hundred of dobashies, and servants of all kinds pushing for employment. These dobashies undertake to interpret, buy all that is wanted, provide servants, tradesmen, palanquins, and to transact whatever business a

stranger requires. At Madras these interpreters are of three castes of Sudras. The persons of the first description seem analogous to the Kayasthas (pronounced Koits) of Bengal, and are called Canaca-pillays, which by the English is commonly written *Canacoply*; and this term is extended by Europeans to all persons, whether Brahmins or Sudras, who follow the same profession. The next caste that follow the business of dobashies are the more learned Goalas or Yadavas: and the third caste are the Vaylalars or the labouring class. Each of these races pretends to a superiority of rank over the others, for which they give reasons quite satisfactory to themselves. The pride of caste is remarkably prevalent among Hindoos, and there is scarcely a creature so wretched and ignorant, but who on this account holds in contempt many persons in easy circumstances and respectable situations. The gradation of the different inferior castes is by no means well ascertained, there being only one point perfectly clear, which is the immeasurable superiority of the Brahmins above the rest of mankind.

Among the charitable institutions of Madras are a male and female orphan asylum, both admirably conducted. The men servants are mostly Hindoos, but a great proportion of the female servants are native Portuguese. Besides French pedlars from Pondicherry, with boxes of lace and artificial flowers, there are a tribe of Mahomedans who go about selling moco stones, petrified tamarind wood, garnets, coral, mock amber, and a variety of other trinkets. The Madras jugglers are celebrated all over India for their dexterity; the most curious, and at the same time the most disgusting sight, is the swallowing of a blunt sword, in which there is no deception. They commence operations while very young, the children beginning the experiment with short bits of bamboo, which are lengthened as the throat and stomach are able to bear them. In 1812, a college was instituted here similar to that established in Calcutta, for the instruction of the young civilians in the country languages, previously to their being nominated to official situations in the interior. Besides the two mentioned above there are many other charitable, religious, and literary societies, more especially one of the last mentioned description on the plan of the Asiatic Society, established by Sir William Jones at Calcutta, in 1784. In 1825 there were three English newspapers published weekly at Madras, but no native newspaper had up to that date been undertaken.

The Black town of Madras stands to the north and eastward of the fort, from which it is separated by a spacious esplanade. It was formerly surrounded by fortifications sufficient to resist the predatory incursions of cavalry, and its walls on the land side are still preserved in good repair. In this town reside the native, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, and also many Europeans, unconnected with the government. Like other Hindostany towns it is irregular and confused, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houses, and makes a better appearance at a distance than when closely inspected. The principal place of protestant worship at Madras is the church of St. George, a large and handsome edifice, with an elegant spire, situated on Choultry plain. Besides this there are the old church within the fort, the new Scotch presbyterian church, and the Armenian and Portuguese churches in the Black town. In 1810 the native population of Madras within the limits of the supreme court, was estimated by one of the judges at 320,000 persons. In 1823, Madras and its suburbs, according to a census then taken, contained 26,786 houses, inhabited as follows:

Men	109,246
Women	144,916
Boys	79,992
Girls	81,597
	415,751

Add for the population of 2,862 houses within the precincts of the nabob's palace	46,300
Grand total	462,051

But as this statement would give a most unusually large number (15) of inhabitants to each house, some mistake has probably arisen respecting the number of the latter.

Owing to the want of a secure port and navigable rivers, the commerce of Madras is much inferior to that of the other two presidencies, but all sorts of Asiatic and European commodities are, however, to be procured. Besides the disadvantages above mentioned, the Carnatic province, considered generally, is sterile, compared with Bengal, and raises none of the staple articles of that province in any quantity, or at so low a price, as to admit of competition in foreign markets. Formerly a large fleet of the native craft called dhoneys was kept in activity during part of the year, and many British ships were also employed, importing rice from Bengal, in return for cargoes of salt, from places northward of Madras. But since the pacification of the Carnatic, and the settlement of the new territories under the presidency, the produce of rice has been found adequate to its own consumption, and this traffic has almost ceased. The East-India Company's staple has always been piece goods, and that demand, since the introduction of European cotton goods, seems expiring also.

Meat, poultry, fish, and other refreshments for shipping, are to be procured here; but they are neither of so good a quality nor so cheap as in Bengal. Wood and fuel are rather scarce, and in proportion dear. Charcoal is brought from Pulicat by the Ennore canal. The Madras market having, in 1812, been relieved from certain restraints, the good effects were instantaneously experienced, the supply having greatly increased in quantity (more especially of poultry), while the price diminished; the natural consequences followed, of an increased consumption and steady demand. The water is of a very good quality, and supplied to the ships by native boats at established prices. On account of the dearness of provisions, wages are considerably higher than in Calcutta: but few servants are kept comparatively, yet the work is quite as well done. Household servants receive from two to five pagodas per month, and the hire of a palanquin is four and a half pagodas; for field service, a set of bearers receive each two pagodas per month, but at the presidency one and three-quarters pagoda.

Until 1818, public and private accounts were kept at Madras in star pagodas, fanams, and cash; but from the commencement of that year, the Court of Directors ordered that the rupee should in future constitute the standard coin of the presidency, and that all future engagements of the government, and the pay and allowances of their servants, should be adjusted at the rate of 350 rupees per 100 star pagodas. The new silver currency consists of rupees, quarter rupees, double annas, and annas; besides which a gold coinage has been issued, under the very barbarous appellation of gold rupees (rupee meaning silver exclusively); and a copper coinage, at the rate of twelve pice for one anna. Formerly eighty cash made one fanam, and from forty-two to forty-six fanams one star pagoda. Cash pieces are small copper coin struck in England and sent to Madras, bearing the date of 1803, and having their value marked on each of them. In 1813, the pound sterling of Great Britain was reckoned at two pagodas twenty-one fanams at the Madras custom-house; the Bengal sicca rupee 325 per 100 star pagodas, and the Bombay rupee 350 per 100 star pagodas. The origin of the term pagoda has never been satisfactorily ascertained. By the English in the Carnatic, it is a name given to a Hindoo temple, and also to a shape-

less gold coin called varaha and varahun by the Hindoos, and hoon by the Mahomedans. The total gross collection of the public revenue of Madras city, in 1817, amounted to 281,003 star pagodas.

A supreme court of justice is established at Madras, on the model of that at Fort William, in Bengal. It consists of a chief justice and two other judges, who are barristers of not less than five years standing, appointed by the King. The salary of the chief justice is £6,000 per annum, and of the puisne judges £5,000 each, paid at the rate of eight shillings per star pagoda. After seven years' service in India, if the judges of the supreme court return to Europe, the King is authorized to order pensions to be paid them out of the territorial revenues, in the following proportions: to the chief judge not more than £1,600 per annum, and to the junior judges not more than £1,200 per annum. The law practitioners attached to the court are eight attornies and six barristers.

This part of the coast of Coromandel was probably visited at an earlier period by the English, but they possessed no fixed establishment until A.D. 1639, in which year, on the 1st of March, a grant was received from the descendant of the Hindoo dynasty of Bijanagur, then reigning at Chandergherry, for the erection of a fort. This document from Sree Rung Rayeel expressly enjoins that the town and fort to be erected at Madras shall be called after his own name, Sree Runga Raya Patam; but the local governor or Naik, Damerla Vencatadri, who first invited Mr. Francis Day, the chief of Armegon, to remove to Madras, had previously intimated to him, that he would have the new English establishment founded in the name of his father Chenappa, and the name of Chenappa-patam continues to be universally applied to the town of Madras by the natives of that division of the south of India named Dravida. In consequence of this permission, without waiting for instructions from the Court of Directors, Mr. Day proceeded with great alacrity to the construction of a fortress, which in India is soon surrounded by a town. The latter he allowed to retain its Indian appellation, but the former he named Fort St George. The territory granted extended five miles along shore and one inland.

In 1644, the money expended on the fortifications amounted to £2,294, and it was computed that £2,000 more would be requisite, and a garrison of one hundred soldiers, to render the station impregnable to the native powers. The garrison appears afterwards to have been much diminished, as in 1652 there were only twenty-six soldiers in the fortress. In 1653 the agent and council of Madras were raised to the rank of a presidency. In 1654 the Court of Directors ordered the president and council of Fort St. George to reduce their civil establishment to two factors and a guard of ten soldiers. In 1661 Sir Edward Winter was appointed agent at Madras; but in 1665 was suspended, and Mr. George Foxcroft appointed to succeed him. On the arrival of the latter, Sir Edward Winter seized and imprisoned him, and kept possession of Fort St. George until the 22d August 1668, when he delivered it up to the commissioners from England, on condition of receiving a full pardon for all offences. Mr. Foxcroft then assumed the government, which he filled until 1671, when he embarked for Europe, and was succeeded by Sir William Langhorne. This year the sovereign of the Carnatic made over to the Company his moiety of the customs at Madras, for a fixed rent of 1,200 pagodas per annum. In 1676, the pay of a European soldier at Madras was twenty-one shillings per month, in full for provisions and necessaries of every kind.

In 1680 Mr. William Gifford was appointed governor of Fort St. George; and in 1693, he was appointed president both of Madras and Bengal. In 1686 he was dismissed,

and Mr. Yule appointed president of Fort St. George only. On the 12th Dec. 1687, the population of the city of Madras, Fort St. George, and the villages within the Company's boundaries, was reported in the public letter to be 300,000 persons. In 1691 Mr. Yule was dismissed, and Mr. Higginson appointed his successor. In 1696 Mr. Thomas Pitt was appointed governor; in which year the revenue produced by taxes at Madras amounted to 40,000 pagodas. In 1701, Mr. President Pitt expressed his fears that the natives would bribe the Arab fleet to assist them in blockading the garrison. In 1702 Madras was besiged by Daoud Khan, one of Aurengzebe's generals, who said he had orders to demolish it altogether. Up to 1703, gunpowder formed one of the articles of the outward-bound investment; but about this period the manufacture of it was so much improved at Madras, as to preclude the necessity of sending any more. In 1708 the governor, Mr. President Pitt, was much alarmed by a dispute among the natives about precedence; one party described as the right-hand caste, and the other as the left-hand caste, each threatening to leave the place, and retire to St. Thomé, if the superiority were not granted.

From the junction of the rival East-India Companies, in 1708, we have no authentic annals of Madras until 1744, when it was besieged by the French from the Mauritius under M. de la Bourdonnais, at which period it was estimated that the native inhabitants residing within the Company's limits amounted to 250,000 persons. The English garrison did not exceed 300 men, and of these 200 only were soldiers of the garrison. On the 7th September the French began to bombard the town; and on the 10th it was surrendered. There was not a man killed in the French camp during the siege; four or five English only were killed in the town by the explosion of bombs, which likewise destroyed two or three houses. From this period, it is useful to contemplate the progress made by the British in Hindostan, both in the science and spirit of war. The plunder realized by the French was about £200,000, and the town by the capitulation was ransomed for £440,000; which agreement was subsequently broken by M. Dupleix, and all the British inhabitants of every description compelled to abandon the place.

At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Madras was restored, and evacuated by the French in August 1749, when it was found in a very improved condition. The buildings within the white town had suffered no alteration, but the bastions and batteries in that quarter had been enlarged and strengthened. The French had entirely demolished that part of the black town situated within 300 yards of the white, in which space had stood buildings belonging to the most opulent Armenian and native merchants. With the ruins they formed an excellent glacis, which covered the north side of the white town, and they had likewise thrown up another on the south side. The defences of the town, however, still remained much inferior to those of Fort St. David, where the East-India Company ordered the presidency to continue.

Although improved, Fort St. George was incapable of making a considerable resistance against a regular European force; yet in this condition it was allowed to remain until 1756, when the apprehension of another attack from the French compelled the governor and council to strengthen the fortifications. About 4,000 labourers of different descriptions were in consequence employed, and continued to work until driven away by the approach of the French, under M. Lally, in 1758. On the 12th December of that year the last of the troops from the outposts entered the fort, and completed the force with which Madras was to sustain the siege. The whole of the European military, including officers, with sixty-four Topasses and eighty Caffres,

amounted to 1,758 men; the Sepoys 2,220 men; the European inhabitants not military were 150, and they were appropriated without distinction to serve out stores and provisions to the garrison. The council of the presidency, by an unanimous vote, committed the defence of the place to the governor, Mr. Pigot, recommending him to consult Colonel Lawrence on all occasions.

The siege commenced on the 17th December 1758, and was prosecuted with the utmost skill, vigour, and bravery, on both sides, until the 17th February 1759, when the French were obliged to raise the siege with such precipitation that they had not time to destroy the black town or remove their sick. They took with them about one-quarter of the stores, but left behind fifty-two pieces of cannon and 150 barrels of gunpowder. During the siege the fort fired 26,554 rounds from their cannon, 7,502 shells from their mortars, and threw 1,990 hand-grenades; the musquetry expended 200,000 cartridges. In these services were used 1,768 barrels of gunpowder; thirty pieces of cannon and five mortars had been dismounted from the works. As many of the enemy's cannon-balls were gathered in the works or about the defences of the fort, or found within the black town, as the garrison had expended. The enemy threw 8,000 shells of all sorts, of which by far the greater number were directed against the buildings, so that scarce a house remained that was not open to the heavens.

While the siege lasted thirteen officers were killed, two died, and fourteen wounded, and four taken prisoners; in all thirty-three. Of the European troops 198 were killed, fifty-two died in the hospital, twenty deserted, and 122 were taken prisoners; in all 579 Of the sepoys and lascars 114 were killed, including officers, and 440 deserted. The loss of the French was never exactly ascertained. Their force at the commencement of the siege was 3,500 Europeans, 2,000 sepoys, and 2,000 native and European cavalry.

Since that memorable period Madras has not sustained any foreign attacks, although approached very near by Hyder in 1767 and 1781; but the strength of the works is wholly beyond the utmost effort of native tactics, and blockade need not be apprehended while the sea is open. At present the Madras native infantry is recruited only from the more respectable castes, about an equal mixture of Hindoos and Mahomedans. The Madras sepoy is considerably smaller than the up-country Bengal soldiers, and of slender make; but active, remarkably steady, capable of undergoing great fatigue, and of attaining, from their docility, a surprising perfection in the mechanical department of a soldier's duty. The lowest standard is five feet three inches; the average height five feet five inches. From Calcutta to Madras is 1,044 miles; the common post takes eleven days, but it has been done by express in nine. The travelling distance from Madras to Bombay is 770 miles.

From A.D 1747 the succession of the governors of Madras took place according to the following abstract, but the necessity of condensation precludes all historical details. Charles Floyer, Esq succeeded to the government of Fort St. David (then the principal town) and Madras on the 15th April, 1747.

12th, January 1749. succeeded by Thomas Saunders, Esq.

14th January, 1755, George Pigot, Esq.

14th November 1763, Robert Palk, Esq.

25th January, 1767, Charles Bourchier, Esq.

31st December, 1770, Josiah Dupré, Esq.

2d February, 1773, Alexander Wynch Esq.

11th December, 1775, George, Lord Pigot, who was most violently removed by a majority of the council on the 24th August, 1776, and his place taken by George Stratton,

Esq.; who was suspended by order of the Court of Directors on the 11th of June 1777, and Lord Pigot ordered to be restored; but he died on the 10th of May 1777.

31st August, 1777, Mr. Whitehill arrived at Fort St. George, with the Court's orders respecting Lord Pigot, and took upon himself the government.

8th February, 1778, Thomas Rumbold, Esq. arrived at Fort St. George, and assumed the government. He departed for Europe in April 1780, and was succeeded by Mr. Whitehill; who was suspended by orders of the governor-general, on the 10th October 1780, and in consequence Charles Smith, Esq. succeeded, in the beginning of November 1780.

22d June, 1780, Lord Macartney took charge of the government, and on the 1st of June 1785, resigned to Alexander Davidson, Esq., as the senior civil servant. He continued in office until the 6th April 1786, when Sir Archibald Campbell took charge of the government, which he occupied until the 1st February 1789, when he resigned in favour of Mr. John Holland, who, on the 13th February 1790, resigned in favour of Mr. Edward John Holland, whose administration lasted only one week.

20th February, 1790, Major-general Medows took charge of the government, which on the

1st August, 1792, he resigned to Sir Charles Oakley, who continued until the

7th September, 1794, when Lord Hobart, afterwards Earl of Buckinghamshire, took charge.

1st February, 1798, General, afterwards Lord Harris, succeeded Lord Hobart, and continued until the

21st August, 1798, when Lord Clive, afterwards Earl of Powis, took charge of the government. On the

30th August, 1803, he was succeeded by Lord William Bentinck.

11th September, 1807, William Petrie, Esq. took charge of the government until the

24th December, 1807, when Sir George Hilaro Barlow arrived from Bengal, and continued until the

21st May, 1813, when he was succeeded by General John Abercrombie, who on the

16th September, 1813, resigned, and he was succeeded by the Honourable Hugh Elliot, who continued until the

9th June, 1820, when Sir Thomas Munro arrived; who dying in July 1827, was succeeded by Mr. Lushington.—(*Parliamentary Reports, Fullarton, Maria Graham, Milburn, Bruce, F. Buchanan; Public MS. Documents, Wilks, Lord Valentia, Rennell, R. Grant, &c.*)

MADURA (*Mathura*).—A district conjointly with Dindigul, in the south of India, and subordinate to the Madras presidency. The climate of this tract differs in some respect from that of Dindigul, the country being less elevated further south, and not quite so cold in the months of December and January. In April and May the thermometer ranges from 70° to 98°, in January it seldom falls below 66°. The north-east monsoon extends to the Madura district, in common with other parts of the Coromandel coast; but inland the rains fall more gently than in the parts bordering on the sea. In the month of April the bed of the river Vaygaroo, before dry, is invariably filled by the rains that have fallen in the western mountains, on which circumstance the natives rely for the replenishing of their tanks. About the middle of November the tanks are full, and the Vaygaroo impassable at the town of Madura for many days.

In the Madura section of this collectorate there are marshy tracts lying within a short distance of the hills, which render the villages in their vicinity damp and unhealthy; and in other parts there is much jungle, particularly near the boundaries of the Tondiman's country. The high lands that surround Towarancourchy

and Cottampetta are covered with thick woods, and there is a great deal of low fenny ground between these villages. Here, as in every country within the torrid zone, there are situations where fever never fails at certain seasons of the year to become endemical, but in common years its influence is circumscribed. The towns and villages, although superior to those of Dindigul, are many of them badly thatched, and miserably constructed. Some of the sandy tracts near the Vaygaroo are overrun with baubool trees, interspersed with groves of the wild palmyra; and much has been done of late years towards the improvement of the country by the construction of good roads. The four largest towns are Madura, Trimangalum, Sholavanden, and Nattam. Mooloopetty, in the Ramnad zemindary, is much resorted to by invalids, on account of the salubrity of its climate. A sea breeze blows there night and day; as, on account of its having the ocean to the south, and the bay of Valkerry due west, the west or land wind becomes a sea breeze. The cultivation of cotton is rather general in the Madura district, being limited rather by soil than climate, as it requires a black clay land, or a soil with a considerable intermixture of black clay, which is liable to taxation in proportion to its estimated fertility. In 1817, the total gross collection of the public revenue in the Madura and Dindigul zillah was 5,41,335 star pagodas.

The ancient sovereigns of this country were named the Pandian race; and it is supposed to have been the Pandionis Mediterraneæ, and Madura Regia Pandionis of Ptolemy. In conjunction with Trichinopoly, it forms a Hindoo geographical division named Madura. During the Carnatic wars from 1740 to 1760, it was occupied by a number of turbulent poligars, who held their dens and fortified castles within the recesses of the thick jungles by which it was overspread. In 1801 it was transferred to the British government by the Nabob of Arcot. In the remote periods of Hindoo history this was one of the holy countries of the south of India, the capital being styled the Southern Mathura, and the district still exhibits the remains of many monuments of former Hindoo grandeur. In modern times the christian religion has made no inconsiderable progress, the number of Roman Catholics in 1785 having been estimated at 18,000, besides those of the Protestant persuasion. In 1809, 10, and 11, an epidemic fever prevailed, which destroyed a large proportion of the inhabitants, who in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras government, amounted to 601,293 persons.—(*Medical Reports, Wilks, Hodgson, Fra. Paolo, Mackenzie, &c.*)

MADURA (*Mathura*).—An ancient fortified city in the southern Carnatic, the capital of the preceding district. Lat. 9° 55′ N., lon. 78° 14′ E., 130 miles N. by E. from Cape Comorin. Its lofty walls are of stone, with square bastions, but in many places much dilapidated, and in some parts its ditch converted into rice fields. The streets are unusually wide and regular for an Indian city, but the private dwellings are mean and wretched, forming a striking contrast with the magnificence of the public edifices. The principal remains of Madura have been delineated by Mr. Daniell, and comprise some of the most extraordinary specimens of Hindoo architecture now extant. The palace is a vast pile of a very anomalous character, in the style of which something appears to have been borrowed from the Moguls. Its elevated dome, ninety feet in diameter, is still entire, but many parts of the structure have disappeared, and the rest are falling rapidly to decay. The great temple, with its spacious areas, choultries, and four colossal porticos (each a pyramid of ten stories), cover an extent of ground almost sufficient for the site of a town. It comprehends various shrines: but Mahadeva (worshipped under the name of Choka-lingam) is the chief

object of adoration. In front of the temple is the celebrated choultry of Trimul Naig, 312 feet in length, with its grotesque sculptures, and polished columns of green stone, the whole much polluted with white-wash and party-coloured daubing.

The civil station of Madura is about a mile and a half to the south of the city, on a spot embellished with one of the finest artificial pieces of water in India, embanked with masonry, and having an island in the centre, decorated with a temple; and not far off is a remarkable isolated eminence, which from its shape is usually called the Elephant rock. During the Carnatic wars, from 1740 to 1760, Madura sustained many sieges, and was often in the hands of refractory poligars; but the great revolution which, towards the conclusion of the eighteenth century, transferred the south of India into the possession of the British, by removing hostile operations to a greater distance, has rendered the maintenance of this and a multitude of other fortresses wholly superfluous. About thirty years ago the town was supposed to contain 40,000 inhabitants, but latterly, from various causes, the population has decreased, and in 1812 amounted to only 20,069 persons. — (*Fullarton, Medical Reports, Orme, Dubois, Rennell, &c.*)

MADURA ISLE (*Mathura*).—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the north-east coast of Java, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at ninety-two miles, by seventeen the average breadth. The centre of Madura is a continued ridge of no great elevation, sloping down towards the sea on each side. The soil produces rice in great abundance, the surplus being exported to Sourabhaya and other Dutch settlements. Buffaloes and sheep, the latter of a larger size than in continental India, are so plentiful that their skins are an article of export, as also rattans; but bay salt is the most important staple of the island, many ship loads being annually transported to Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and to all the Dutch colonies. The principal towns are Samanap, Parmacassan, Bancallan, and Kamal, and chief subordinate isles are Gallion and Pondi. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815 the total population of Madura amounted to 218,659 persons, of whom 6,344 were Chinese; the area of its surface extends to 1,620 square miles.

This island having been acquired by the Dutch in the same manner as their other possessions on the main land, the sultan of Madura and the chiefs of Parmacassan and Samanap were always considered by them in nearly the same light as those along the north coast of Java, with the exception only of a more dignified title, and some greater personal respect conceded to the sultan of Bancallan, usually styled the sultan of Madura, whose ancestors rendered important services to the Dutch, in the Javanese wars from 1740 to 1748. The natives speak a peculiar language; for, although separated from Java only by a narrow strait, the dialects of the two islands scarcely approximate more than those of any other two islands of the Western archipelago. They have also less resemblance to the Malays than most of the Eastern islanders, and but little intercourse with the Dutch, who interfere no further with the interior government than to realize what profit they can. The greater part profess their ancient religion, have a Hindoo aspect, wear the Hindoo mark on their forehead, and the women burn themselves after the manner of the Brahminical Hindoos. They appear to have some idea of a future life, but not as a state of retribution; conceiving immortality to be the lot of rich, rather than of good men — (*Marsden, Raffles, Crawfurd, Leyden, Stavorinus, &c.*)

MAGATANA.—A low-roofed and rudely executed cave temple, with various cells and smaller excavations,

in the adjoining rocks, situated within a short distance of the village of Panseer, on the island of Salsette. These, like the neighbouring caves of Kenneri, appear to be of Buddhist origin.

MAGGERI.—A town in the Mysore Raja's territories, twenty-two miles west from Bangalore; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 77° 19′ E. The fort is a work of some strength, with a ditch and glacis in the modern style. The profusion of old trees about Maggeri, its romantic situation, fine groups of pagodas, and noble reservoir, render it one of the most beautiful spots in the province. Iron ore abounds in the vicinity, and many smelting forges are worked.

In the adjacent woods round Severndroog and Maggeri the sandal-wood of the English merchants is found. When the tree is cut the common size of it at the root is nine inches diameter; but only one-third of the tree is valuable, the remainder being white wood, and totally devoid of smell. The wood is of the best quality in trees that have grown in a rocky soil. The bottom of the stem under ground, immediately above the division into roots, is the most valuable portion. There are also a few diminutive teak trees in this neighbourhood.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

MAGINDANAO (*Melindenow*).—An island in the Eastern seas, the most southerly of the Philippines, situated principally between the sixth and tenth degrees of north latitude. Its figure is extremely irregular, but in length it may be estimated at 300 miles, by 105 the average breadth. This island has three remarkable promontories; one near Sambangan to the westward; Cape St. Augustin to the eastward; and Surigao to the northward. It may be divided into three parts, the first under the sultan, who resides at Magindanao or Selangan, which formerly comprehended the greater part of the sea-coast, the second is under the Spaniards, which includes a large portion of the sea-coast to the north-west and north-east, where they have planted colonies of Christians from the Philippines, named Bisayans, the third is under the Illanos (or Llanos) sultans and rajas, who inhabit the banks of the great laske or Llano, and thence inland to the hills. They also possess the coast of the great Llano bay, situated on the south-east side of the island. Many of the districts above Boyan, are subject to the Boyan raja, who, notwithstanding his title, is a Mahomedan, and governs about 20,000 male inhabitants of that religion. To the north of Magindanao town is the harbour of Sugud or Pollok, one of the finest in India, and distinguished by a peaked hill above 200 feet high. At the harbour of Taboc, formed by the island of Elias, is the chief rendezvous for the assembling of the piratical prows, and here the raja has a house fortified with Spanish guns.

The bay of Panguil, on the north side cuts deep into the island, and receives the waters of many small rivers, where the rowing prows conceal themselves from the Spaniards. A little to the east of the bay is the Spanish town of Yligan, containing about 150 houses, beyond which lies the town of Cayagan, with a fort and tolerably good harbour. This town in A.D. 1770 contained 400 houses, and stood on the banks of a river flowing from the interior, whence gold was procured. The inhabitants on the sea-coast at Cayagan are Bisayans or Philippine Christians, who carry on a friendly intercourse with the Mahomedan mountaineers, the Horaforas or aborigines of the interior. The Spanish jurisdiction formerly extended to Cail and Tandag, but their forts have been destroyed by the people of Magindanao. The harbours at both these places are bad during the north-east monsoon, as they then lie on the windward side of the island.

The interior of Magindanao contains several chains of lofty mountains, between which are extensive plains, where vast herds of cattle are pastured. Several deep chasms or valleys intersect certain parts of the country, through which, during the rains, great torrents rush to the sea. About the middle of the island there are several lakes of considerable extent, the principal being the great Llano, from fifteen to twenty miles across, and about sixty in circumference. Many rivers discharge their waters into this lake, but only one is known to issue from it, which falls into the sea near Yligan. Its borders are inhabited by various savage tribes, ruled by independent chiefs, entitled sultans and rajas, whose subjects in 1776 were estimated at 61,000. In the district of Kalagan is a high mountain, which at times ejects smoke, fire, and brimstone. When the mountain has not for some time thrown out any brimstone, the inhabitants suppose that the god who rules it is angry, and to appease his wrath sacrifice an old slave whom they purchase for five or six kangans, or pieces of cloth.

Magindanao is well wooded, and in many parts towards the sea-coast covered with impenetrable jungle and forests; and most parts inland are overgrown with timber trees, brushwood, reeds, and grass. The soil is also well supplied with moisture, there being streams every where fertilizing the land, and producing a luxuriant vegetation. The trees most abundant are the teak, the larch, the poon, and the cassia tree. Rice is raised in large quantities, as also yams, sweet-potatoes, coco-nuts, pumplenoses, mangoes, jacks, plantains, oranges, limes, and all fruits common to tropical climates. There are no ravenous wild beasts on the island, on which account deer, wild cattle, buffaloes, hogs, goats, and horses, multiply fast. The latter are of a small breed, but remarkably spirited.

On the hills inland, about thirty miles up the river of Magindanao, is a saltpetre cave of considerable extent, along the bottom of which there is a miry glutinous mud. With one measure of this mud the natives mix two measures of wood-ashes, and then filter water through it, after which they procure the nitre by evaporation; but the gunpowder subsequently manufactured is coarse grained, and possesses but little strength. In the mountains of Kalagan, in the south-east quarter, talc is found, and it is said the pearl-oyster has been discovered on the banks and sands. The Horsforas of the interior cultivate rice, sugar-canes, potatoes, yams, pumpkins, and other vegetables, which they bring down to the sea-coast for sale, and they also from rice and molasses mixed make a liquor of a pleasant taste. In exchange for these articles, the Malay inhabitants of the coast give them iron chopping-knives, cloth, salt, &c. The natives of Magindanao manufacture a cloth from the fibres of the plantain-tree, three yards long and one broad. This is the usual garment of the countrywomen, and resembles a wide sack without a bottom, and is often used as a currency or measurement of exchange in the market. The Horsforas make a strong cloth from a species of flax. The circulating medium in most parts of the country is the Chinese kangan, value 2*s.* 6*d.*, a piece of coarse cloth thinly woven, nineteen inches broad and six feet long. The value on the island of Sooloo is ten dollars for a bundle of twenty-five kangans, sealed up; and at Magindanao is nearly the same, except that dollars are scarcer. In the bazar the immediate currency is paddy, or rice in the husk; but when things of considerable value are mentioned, such as a house, or a prow, it is described as being worth so many slaves; the old valuation being one slave for thirty kangans, or bundles of cloth. Chinese and Sooloo cash (thin pieces of copper perforated and slung on a cord) are also current.

All cotton cloths of Hindostan sell well here, as also opium, and European cutlery. The Spaniards having long hindered the Chinese junks bound from Amoy to Magindanao

from passing Samboangan, most Chinese articles are imported by the way of Sooloo. These consist, besides kangans, of beads, gongs, China basins, deep brass plates, deep saucers, brass wire, and iron. There are many places under the sultan of Magindanao where gold is procured; and it is said that a Spanish governor with 100 men, in twenty days, procured in the Carnan river 180 ounces of gold. Besides gold, the principal exports are rice, wax, cassia, rattans, tobacco, and pepper. The Mahomedans on the sea-coast carry on a considerable trade with the Horaforas of the interior, who bring down the rivers, on rafts of bamboos, pumpkins, potatoes, rice, yams, &c., which they exchange for salt, cloth, and coarse cutlery.

The form of the government in Magindanao is partly feudal and partly monarchical. Next to the sultan in rank is the raja mooda, his successor elect, like the king of the Romans in the old Germanic constitution. The laws on the sea-coast are nearly the same as in the other Malay states; in the interior, among the unconverted inhabitants, custom and superstition are the only guides by which they regulate their conduct. The vassals of the sultan are a mixture of Mahomedans and Horaforas; the former accompany him in his military expeditions; the latter are excused personal attendance, but pay heavy taxes and are sold along with the land. The sultan's guards are generally captives and slaves from the Philippines. On grand days he has them dressed in uniforms of blue broad-cloth turned up with red, and trimmed with white buttons of tin. On their heads they wear Spanish grenadier caps inscribed with Yoelney, (I the king.)

A Magindanao prow of large dimensions measures ninety feet long, twenty-six broad, and eight and a half deep; rows forty oars, has two rudders, and carries a crew of ninety men. Some of their piratical cruizers are very long and narrow, being frequently fifty feet long and only three broad, with outriggers, to enable them to carry sail. They use the tripod-mast, and row with great velocity. In bad weather they throw out a wooden anchor, and veer away a long rattan-cable, which keeps the head to the sea. Sometimes in an extremity the crew jump overboard and hold by the out-rigger for hours, to ease the vessel of their weight. The owner finds nothing but the hull, for which he has one-third share of the prizes. The mast, sails, anchors and cables are made by the crew, who also find their own provisions, and make their own gunpowder.

The inhabitants of Magindanao of all descriptions are so much given to piracy, that their chiefs, were they inclined, could not restrain their subjects from fitting out vessels to cruize among the Philippines, which, to the disgrace of the Spaniards, is the grand slaving ground for all depredators in this quarter of the Eastern seas. When the prow is large they strike the mast and hide among the rocks and small islands, or up a creek. Canoes are then detached to plunder, and the proceeds are brought to the large vessel, which returns home when a sufficient cargo of slaves and plunder is acquired. When they attack the Dutch possessions they make slaves of persons of their own religion, which they elsewhere endeavour to avoid. Besides the Philippines they extend their cruizes to Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes.

From their vicinity to, and intercourse with the Spanish Philippines, they have acquired a knowledge of some of the European arts. The raja mooda, or sultan elect, of 1775, could read and write Spanish, and was a performer on the violin; but musical gongs are the favourite instruments of the natives. They have goldworkers who make filligree-buttons, ear-rings, &c.; but not so well as the Malays of Sumatra and Java. Their blacksmiths are incapable of making any thing that requires more ingenuity than a common nail, but they frequently have Philippine slaves who can mend gun-locks. Their culi-

nary utensils are almost wholly procured from China. They bury their dead with great expedition, and generally begin making the coffin before the sick person's face.

The sultanas and other females do not appear to suffer the strict confinement to which they are subjected in Hindostan, as they are present at audiences and other public exhibitions. At the age of thirteen the Magindanao ladies have their teeth filed thin and stripped of the enamel, preparatory to their being stained black, which is performed with great ceremony, and among persons of high rank is preceded by a festival. In 1775, at the marriage of the sultan's daughter, the portion given with her was valued at £1,500, and consisted of various articles, among which were two iron four-pounders, valued at £100. The Magindanese have one name for their children during infancy and another when they arrive at manhood; in which they resemble the Chinese, as in many other of their customs, such as esteeming yellow the royal colour. Their language nearly coincides with the Lllanoon dialect, and is a compound of Malay, Buggess, and Tagala (or Philippine), with a certain proportion of the ancient Ternate or Molucca language. In the central parts are a people named Bangel Bangel, who do not build houses, but live under bushes and in hollow trees.

The Horoforas or aborigines are thinly scattered over the island, and frequently migrate from one place to another. They wear brass rings round the wrist and under the knee, five or six on each leg and arm. They also have beads round their necks, and brass rings in their ears, which in both sexes are very broad, and extend almost to their shoulders. Into the holes perforated in their ears they thrust a leaf rolled up like the spring of a watch, in order to stretch them. The women tie their hair behind, plait it like the dancing girls of Madras, and wear a short peitticoat. The weapons of the men are bows and arrows, and when they can afford them, swords, lances and targets. By the Spaniards this race are termed Negros-del-Monte, or negroes of the mountain, whom they have had considerable success in converting, as they agree in one essential point,—the eating of hogs'-flesh.

No satisfactory record remains to inform us at what period Magindanao was first visited by foreigners; but it is probable that before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, ships from Arabia found their way to this island; and either converted the prior inhabitants, or planted new Mahomedan colonies on the sea-coast. On Easter-day, 1521, Magellan arrived at Magindanao, where he ordered the first mass ever said in the Philippines. This took place in the province of Caraga, and town of Batuan, where he set up the cross, and took possession of the island in the name of the King of Spain, and Emperor of Germany, Charles Vth. It was visited by the Portuguese about A.D. 1537, and by the Dutch in 1607, 1616, and 1627. The Dutch made a sort of survey of it in 1693, at which period it was much frequented by English pirates, who then swarmed in the Eastern seas. The Spaniards, although they subdued the northern coast at an early period, never made any further progress, and now with difficulty retain the feeble colonies they formerly planted.

Latterly, the intercourse of the British with the Magindanese has not been frequent, and generally not of an amicable nature. A piratical fleet from this island had the temerity to attack the settlement at Prince of Wales' Island, soon after its establishment in 1788, but were repulsed with loss. In 1798 the sultan of Magindanao seized a boat's crew belonging to the *La Sybille* frigate, which had been sent on shore to wood and water, and detained them prisoners until he received a ransom of 4,000 dollars. In 1803 the Magindanese pirates fitted out a fleet of forty prows, with the intention of plundering the East India Company's

settlements on the coast of Celebes; but were met by the Swift cruizer and defeated. — (*Forrest, Leyden, Mears, Valentyn, Zuniga, &c.*)

MAGINDANAO. — The principal town on the island of Magindanao, and residence of the sultan; lat. 7° 9′ N., lon. 124° 40′ E. This place is situated about six miles up the river Pelangy, or Magindanao river, on the right side, at its junction with the Melampy, after which the latter is about the breadth of the Thames at London bridge. The mouth of the Pelangy being sheltered by the island of Bunwoot, has a smooth bar almost at all times. The town properly called Magindanao is small; but on the opposite side of the river, and communicating by several bridges, is the town of Selangan, the two, in fact, forming but one town under different names, the latter being the most prevalent. Selangan extends about a mile down the south side of the Pelangy river, and contains the fortified palace of the sultan, and also strong wooden castles, belonging to some of the principal nobility. Further down the town diverges into several irregular streets, amounting (in 1776) to 220 houses, where many Chinese reside. There is also the brick and mortar foundation of a Spanish chapel.

In an island like Magindanao, where the country is thinly inhabited and the land of little value, the inhabitants, more especially the Mahomedans, dislike crowding together, and prefer building their houses 300 yards distant from each other, along the banks of the river, surrounded by gardens of coco-nut, mango, and plantain trees, and fields of rice and sugar-cane. The fort is built on an extreme point of land, and is strongly palisadoed; and on a floor of stout plank, supported by posts and beams, are several cannon, six and nine pounders, which command both branches of the river. Their streams wind here through a plain about twelve miles broad, extending forty miles north-east and south-east as far as the lakes of Leguassin and Bulooan; the inhabitants consequently travel mostly by water in sampans, or canoes of different sizes. The highest tide rises six feet and a half, which is sufficient to overflow the adjacent lands, but not to any great depth. On the side next the Pelangy river many Chinese families reside, who are mostly carpenters, arrack-makers, and distillers. The exports from hence are rice, wax, cassia, rattans, tobacco, pepper, and gold, the traffic being principally carried on with Sooloo, Manilla, Borneo, and the Moluccas. The sultan of the town and district of Magindanao is one of the most powerful Malay princes, and possesses considerable feudal authority over other chiefs. His direct territorial jurisdiction, however, is limited to the country in the immediate vicinity of his capital.—(*Forrest, Mears, &c.*)

MAHABULLYSIR (*Mahabalisara*).—A place in the province of Bejapoor, forty-three miles distant from the western coast of India, where the river Krishna has its source, and from whence it travels the whole way across the Deccan to the bay of Bengal. This spot is, of course, much venerated by the Hindoos; and the climate of the table-land (said to be between 4,000 and 5,000 feet above the level of the sea) cool and salubrious. The only inhabitants are a few poor villagers, who smelt iron, and some of the Dunger, or cowherd tribe, who dwell in small huts, and pasture their cattle here during the rains.

MAHABALIPOOR.—A small town in the province and district of Bahar, situated on the east side of the Sone river, thirty-five miles S.W. from Patna; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E. According to tradition this was once a seat of Maha Bali's, round which a town was formed.—(*Wilford, &c.*)

MAHABALIPURAM. — A Brahmin village on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, thirty-five miles south from Madras; lat. 12° 36′ N., lon 80° 16′ E. In the vicinity of this spot are some celebrated Hindoo excavations, tem-

ples shaped out of isolated masses of granite, mythological sculptures, and other extraordinary remains, which appear to have been all originally formed of the solid rock, and in their general character greatly resemble those of Elora and elsewhere on the west coast of India; but are on the whole in a sharper style, and higher state of preservation. The most remarkable is a prodigious group of figures of the human size, intermixed with elephants, bulls, lions, monkeys, cats, and various non-descript monsters, representing the mythological legend of Arjoon, which covers the precipitous face of a rock that rises immediately behind the village, and within 100 yards of the sea. Near to this is a pillared gallery, excavated in the same front of the rock; and at a short distance is another more considerable cave, the inner walls of which are covered with sculptures, representing Krishna protecting his followers from the wrath of Indra.

On the plain to the north of the town is a temple containing a statue of Ganesa, and apparently thirty feet high, cut out of a single detached block of granite; and in a grove of palmiras, about half a mile to the southward, is a group of five temples, of different heights, from seventeen to thirty-six feet, all formed of similar materials. The style of these works is exceedingly pleasing, and bears little resemblance to any of the Indian architectural delineations now in use. Other small cave temples are to be found excavated in other quarters of the hill, and among the cliffs above; and numerous mythological fragments are every where scattered around. Among other representations of living objects is the statue of a lion, an animal quite unknown in southern India, but it has but a faint resemblance to the original.

Distinct altogether from these excavated remains is a temple dedicated to Vishnu, constructed of stone masonry, for which the Brahmins on the spot claim a remote antiquity, but which has all the usual features of a modern pagoda. There are likewise a tank and some architectural ruins on the plain near it; and on the extreme point of a sandy isthmus, washed by the surf, stands a small pyramidical temple, of a ruder and older cast, containing the lingam, or symbol of Siva, partly fallen to ruin, and altogether much worn by the action of the waves. To these two temples, with five others supposed to have been buried in the ocean, this spot is indebted (if we may trust tradition) to the appellation of "the Seven Pagodas." The surf here breaks far from the shore, and (as the Brahmins assert) over Mahabalipuram, the city of the great Bali, an incarnation of Vishnu, and a character famous in Hindoo romance; and, in fact, there is reason to believe that the sea on this part of the Coromandel coast has been encroaching on the land. All the most ancient buildings and monuments at this place are consecrated to Vishnu, whose worship appears to have predominated on this coast, while on the opposite side, in the vicinity of Bombay, that of Siva was the most prevalent.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MAHABALI TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, twenty-nine miles S.W. from Serinagur; lat. 29° 52′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E.

MAHADEVI COOND.—A water-fall, or cataract, 120 feet high, in the province of Malwa, south of the village of Chorlia, which afterwards joins the river Chored.

MAHADEVAGHUR.—A large ancient Hindoo temple in the province of Candeish, division of Beejaghur, built on one of the peaks near the Beejaghur range, but now fast crumbling to decay. The country around is covered with jungle, which in 1820 was the resort of a lawless Bheel banditti.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MAHABEER (*Maha bhir, the great hero*).—The seat of a Jain college, consisting of about thirteen priests, in the province of Agra, principality

of Jeypoor, six miles west from Hindone. The temple is a triple structure of modern erection, containing three images of Parsonanth, and built of a fine red stone, much after the fashion of the Hindoo temples at Benares and Gaya, but rather surpassing them in dimensions. The Jain worship prevails here to a great extent, and Jain temples are more frequently met with in the Jeypoor country than, perhaps, in any other quarter of India, except South Canara.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Mahadeo Hills.—A range of hills in the province of Gundwana, where stands the celebrated temple to which the Hindoos resort in pilgrimage. The height of these mountains has not yet been accurately ascertained. Ambawara, apparently the highest part of the north-eastern quarter of Deoghur, is about 2,500 feet above the level of the sea. Chindwara, further south, on the second level, is 2,100 feet; and the third step about 1,900 feet at the top of Taraghaut, or 800 feet higher than Nagpoor; the top of Kumarpani ghaut is only 1,641 feet above the level of the sea.

At the northern base of these hills are two hot springs, known on the spot by the name of Anhoni Simoni, the water of which is strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen, and holds in solution muriate and sulphate of soda. They are not, however, drank by the natives, who rarely employ mineral waters for medicinal purposes; but they are much resorted to for ablution, which is here performed by pilgrims, with the view of expiating their sins. The westernmost only admits of bathing, the temperature of the other being too high to permit a person to remain immersed more than a minute or two. A sort of reservoir has been constructed at each. The water of the western spring loses its offensive smell almost immediately on cooling; but that of the eastern retains it a considerable time; both uncommonly offensive on the spot. At a short distance a cold spring arises.—(*Jenkins, Medical Transactions, &c.*)

Mahadeo Temple (*Mahadeva*).—A celebrated Hindoo place of worship in the province of Gundwana, situated among the Mahádeo hills, sixty miles S.E. from Hussingabad, on the Nerbudda river; lat. 22°22′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. This temple stands in one of the wildest tracts in the Deccan, and was almost unknown to European geographers until 1818, when Appa Saheb, the ex-raja of Nagpoor, sought refuge among the Gonds of this sequestered region, into which he was pursued by the British troops, but not captured. The neighbouring Gond chiefs, however, were all subdued, and compelled to live peaceably.

Before this event the pilgrim-tax, levied at the passes leading to the temple, had been partitioned among many chiefs, which gave rise to endless quarrels; to prevent which the British government assumed the whole, and engaged to pay each his respective share. The tax was then farmed, and authorized tolls established, from one to ten rupees each pilgrim, and fourteen rupees if with a bullock; but both traders and devotees were effectually protected from the predatory bands which formerly robbed, and sometimes murdered them. At the festival of February 1820 taxes of every sort were remitted by proclamation; and, notwithstanding the lateness of the period when the proclamation was known, above 8,000 persons repaired to the holy shrine, where devotion and commerce are always united.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

Mahadeo Simterkea.—A village in the province and district of Bahar, seven miles N.W. from Ghiddore, remarkable for a detached group of Hindoo temples in its neighbourhood, built on a sort of peninsula, environed on three sides by an artificial reservoir of water.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Mahakalidroog.—A hill-fort in Mysore, twenty miles W. by S. from

Nundy Droog, situated amidst a chain of mountains, with a small pettah at its western base.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MAHAGAM. — A village on the coast of Ceylon, seventy miles N.E. from Dondra Head. The Mahagam Pattoo district is the wildest and most uncultivated on the sea-coast, and in many parts destitute of fresh water. The most remarkable phenomena here are the natural salt-lakes or ponds, many of which are of great extent, and formed by an outward embankment of sand thrown up by the waves along a level shore. The water, which falls in torrents during the rainy season, being thus pent up, overflows a great tract of flat country, and is rendered brackish by intermixture with the sea. During the dry season the wind is very strong and arid, and the air hot, in consequence of which a rapid evaporation takes place, and a crust of salt from three to ten inches thick is deposited. The interior here is a savage country, almost covered with woods. As may be inferred from its local aspect, the inhabitants are a sickly and miserable race; the miasmata from the swamps and jungles destroying their health, and the wild animals (such as elephants, hogs, deer, buffaloes, leopards, and bears) the fruits of their labour. Nor are the salt-makers without their peculiar miseries; the arid qualities of the mud and water of the leeways (or salt ponds) in which they work, blistering and excoriating their hands, legs, and feet. In A.D. 1800 the village of Mahagam contained only twenty inhabitants. The woods are principally composed of euphorbiæ and mimosæ, coco-nut and plantain trees being scarcely ever seen.

MAHANUDDY RIVER (*Maha Nadi, the great river*).—A large river of the Deccan, which has its source in the province of Gundwana, division of Bustar, near the village of Saboura, about thirty miles east of Kakair, from whence flowing northerly by Conkar and Dhumturry through Choteesghur, it enters Sumbhulpoor, a few miles east of Sree Narrain. After passing Sumbhulpoor and Sonepoor (where it receives the waters of the Tailnuddy), it enters the Mogulbundy division of the town of Cuttack, where it throws off its principal branch the Cajori, inclining to the southward, and another to the north-east of the town, called the Berupa. After pursuing an easterly course verging to the south, it sends off to the northward another large river named the Chittutola, and numerous smaller arms, until at Paradip it separates into two or three considerable branches, and at last empties itself by two principal mouths into the sea, a little south of False Point, having completed a winding course of more than 500 miles.

The breadth of this river at Sumbhulpoor, 160 miles above Cuttack, during the rains is nearly a mile, and opposite to the town of Cuttack its bed measures two miles across, after which the main channel narrows very considerably. It deposits universally a coarse sand hostile to fertility, and the bottom of its channel is singularly uneven and irregular. During the rains the Mahanuddy is navigable almost to Ryepoor, a distance of 300 miles from its estuary; on the higher parts of its course it is rendered difficult by rocks and rapids. Supplies from Calcutta have been landed twenty-six miles from Ryepoor at Pungah on the Sew river, in perfectly good condition They were conveyed from Sewry Narrain in small canoes, but boats of considerable size may at the most favourable season ascend to Choteesghur. The Mahanuddy affords means of conveying the produce of the inland provinces to the eastern coast, which will probably ere long be much resorted to, and tend greatly to their improvement and prosperity. A large portion of its channel, however, is dry during five or six months of the year, and it is fordable from January to June even at the town of Cuttack. Many tributary rivers, navigable for small boats during the rains, flow into the Mahanuddy. Of these the most important is the Tail, which also rises

in Bustar, and on the banks of which teak trees of a good size and quality are said to abound, and there is sufficient depth of water from July to November to admit of rafts being floated down.

Diamonds of the first quality and of various sizes are found in the Mahanuddy, and in several of its subsidiary streams, more especially at the mouths of the Maund, Kheloo, Hebe, &c., all of which have their sources in the mountains of Koorba, Sirgooja, Ryeghur, Jushpoor and Gangpoor, and join the Mahanuddy on its left bank. They are also picked up after the rains in the mud and sand deposited in the little bays and alluvial islands, where they are sought for by the Johurries, a peculiar tribe of diamond finders. It is said that diamonds are never found on the right bank of the Mahanuddy, or even on the left bank above its junction with the Maund at Chunderpoor, or below Sonepoor, from which it is inferred that they are washed down from the side banks of the streams that flow from the north to the south, through the almost inaccessible tract that in Arrowsmith's map occupies the eighty-third and eighty-fourth degrees of east longitude, and the twenty-first and twenty-second of north latitude. This fact is rendered probable by their also being found in the small nullahs of Ryeghur, Jushpoor, and Gangpoor; but from the hitherto distracted condition of this wild region, no attempt has yet been made to discover the diamond beds, or excavate the mines.

Another obstacle has no doubt been the pestilential nature of the climate which in India seems constantly to accompany a mountainous and jungly country, producing either gold or diamonds. Except during the three first months of the year, none but a native can resist its influence, and their miserable appearance sufficiently denotes the deleterious atmosphere they breathe. One large diamond found by the searchers, and captured in 1818, with the fort of Sumbhulpoor, sold in Calcutta for 7,000 rupees.—(*Roughsedge, Stirling, Jenkins, &c.*)

Maharajgunge.—A town in the province of Allahabad, belonging to Punnah, thirty-five miles E.S.E. from Teary; lat. 24°36′ N., lon. 79°20′ E.

MAHARATTA.

(*Maharashtra.*)

In the ancient tables of the Hindoos, the term Maharashtra occurs as the name of a geographical division of the Deccan, referring principally to the north-west quarter. The best modern accounts lead us to suppose that the original country of the Maharattas included Candeish, Baglana, and part of Berar, extending towards the north-west as far as Gujerat and the Nerbudda river, where the Grassias and Bheels commence; there being few genuine Maharattas seen further north. To the west they possessed the narrow but strong tract of country which borders on the Concan, and stretches parallel with the sea from Surat to Canara. The Maharatta language is now more widely diffused, but it is not yet become the vernacular dialect of provinces situated far beyond the ancient boundaries of their country. It extends from the Injadree and Satpoora mountains, nearly to the Krishna; and from the sea on the west to a waving frontier on the east, indicated by a line drawn from Goa to the Wurda near Chanda, and thence along that river to the Satpoora hills. It springs from the Sanscrit, and approaches so closely to the Bengalese and Hindostany, that in a Maharatta translation of the Lord's Prayer, twenty-nine of the words are the same as in these languages.

The original Maharatta state comprehended a country of great natural strength, interspersed with mountains, defiles, and fortresses, and admirably calculated for the prosecution of defensive warfare; but that they are not of the military caste is proved by the names of their principal tribes; the Koonbee, the Dungar,

and the Goalah, or the cultivator, shepherd, and cowherd; all rural occupations. The exterior also of the Rajpoot and Maharatta marks a different origin. The first is remarkable for the grace and dignity of his person; the latter on the contrary, is of diminutive size, in general badly made, and of a mean rapacious look and disposition. The Maharatta Brahmins differ also in their customs from their neighbours, with whom they neither associate nor intermarry.

It certainly appears extraordinary that so numerous a nation as the Maharatta should have remained almost wholly unnoticed in Indian history for so long a period as from the first Mahomedan conquest until the reign of Aurengzebe; but it probably originated from the indifference of all Mussulmaun historians (except Abul Fazel) to every thing connected with the Hindoos and their religion. Nursing, a prince of the Maharattas, is mentioned by Ferishta, but it is probable that prior to the time of Sevajee the Maharatta country, like other parts of the Deccan, was divided into little principalities and chiefships, most of which were dependent on the neighbouring Mahomedan sovereigns, although never completely subjugated in the European sense of the word.

Sevajee, the first Maharatta commander who combined the efforts of these discordant chiefs and tribes, was born in A.D. 1628, and died in 1680, at which period his empire extended from Surat along the sea-coast, to the vicinity of the Portuguese settlements at Goa, and as far as the range of hills that terminate the table-land, and form the eastern boundary of Concan. He was succeeded by his son Sambajee, who extended his father's conquests; but falling unfortunately into the hands of Aurengzebe, was put to death in 1689. His successor was his son Sahoo Raja, a pageant prince, who delegated his whole authority to Balajee Bishenauth, a Concanny Brahmin, who had commanded 500 horse in the service of Sevajee. This priest militant acquired such an ascendancy over the mind of his master, that all orders and details were issued directly from him as Peshwa, and received from the raja the title of Mookh Purdhaun, or chief civil minister, which latter term alone was engraved on the Peshwa's seal. This anamolous form of government subsisted from that date to the present period, each Peshwa's successor continuing to be regularly installed by the Sattara raja, his sovereign and prisoner.

Sahoo Raja died in 1740, in the fiftieth year of his reign, during the greater part of which he had been only a prince in name, and towards its conclusion had been wholly forgotten. His imbecility, however, had not impeded the growth of the Maharatta empire, which at his death had reached its zenith. This race, whose name and existence we can with difficulty trace for one century, had either subdued or laid under contribution the whole of the Deccan and South of India. Eastward and westward their dominions were bounded by the sea; northward they reached to Agra; and on the south to Cape Comorin. Sahoo Raja dying without issue, was succeeded by his nephew Ram Raja, the fourth raja (from Sevajee) of Sattara, and son of Raja Ram, who had contested the throne with Sambajee; but being also a weak prince, the Peshwa, Balajee Bajerow (the son of Balajee Bishenauth) ursurped the whole power, and fixed his capital at Poona; while Ragojee Bhoonsla, the bukshee or paymaster, ruled the eastern portion of the Maharatta conquests, and made Nagpoor in Gundwana the seat of his government.

This violent partition of the empire by its principal ministers occasioned the usurpation of others, and the state began to break from the united shape it had hitherto possessed into a confederacy of chiefs, who, however, for a period respected each other's rights, and acted under the influence and able direction of Bajerow. Indeed, down to the latest day, the ancient co-estates of the

Maharatta empire always shewed a strong solicitude to preserve the forms and revive the efficacy of their constitutional federation, which was virtually annihilated by the treaty of Bassein. Under this form of government the Maharattas not only carried their successful ravages through the rich province of Bengal, and almost to the banks of the Indus, but wrested from the Portuguese the strong fortress of Bassein and the island of Salsette. The Sindia family established themselves in Malwa, Candeish, and afterwards extended their conquests over a large proportion of the Rajpoot principalities and the northern provinces of Hindostan. A large share of Gujerat was seized on by the Guicowar family, while that of Holcar established itself in those parts of Malwa and Candeish not occupied by Sindia or the Peshwa. According to the old arrangement, the Peshwa, Sindia, Holcar, and the Powar family were each to have a fourth of their combined conquests, the result of which was, that their territories became so intermixed, that it became impossible to discriminate them in the best maps.

Balajee Bajerow died in 1761, and left the office of Peshwa, now considered hereditary, to his decendants. About this time a formidable rival to the power of the Maharattas appeared in the famous Ahmed Shah Abdali of Cabul; and on the 17th January 1761 was fought the memorable battle of Paniput, where the Maharattas experienced one of the most sanguinary defeats recorded in history. This overthrow checked their enterprizing spirit, and for more than ten years none of their armies committed any depredations of consequence north of the Nerbudda. The Maharattas then seldom engaged in pitched battles; indeed, until their recent conflicts with the British, after they had organized corps of disciplined infantry, but two instances are recorded; the one at Paniput, and the other near Seringapatam, where Hyder was defeated in 1771 by Trimbuck Mamma.

The next Peshwa was Madhoorow, who died in 1772, and was succeeded by his son Narrain Row, who was murdered the following year by his uncle Ragoba (or Ragunath Row); who, however, failed in his object, as the posthumous son of Narrain Row, named Sevajee Madhoorow, was proclaimed Peshwa by a confederacy of twelve chiefs named the Barrah Bhye, or twelve brothers. At the head of these was Balajee Pundit, commonly called Nana Furnavese, who became dewan or prime minister to the infant prince. Ragoba solicited and gained the support of the Bombay government, with which he concluded a treaty highly advantageous to the Company; but their endeavours to support his claim were ineffectual. The atrocity of Ragoba's crime had brought general obloquy on him, among a nation with whom assassination is unfrequent, and his calling in foreign aid had the effect of producing a junction of all the leaders against him. By the interference of the Bengal government a peace and cessation of hostilities was arranged; but in 1777 the Bombay presidency again espoused the cause of Ragoba, and a war ensued, terminated soon after by a disgraceful capitulation of their army and subsequent convention, by the conditions of which Ragoba was abandoned. A general war afterwards took place between the British and Maharattas, but the invasion of the Carnatic by Hyder in 1780 compelled the first to make overtures in 1782 for a peace, by which they restored all their conquests except the island of Salsette.

At this period there were a great many petty independent states which extended along the western frontier of the Company's dominions, and formed a barrier to the Maharatta territories. In 1784 the Maharatta chiefs commenced their operations against these states, and in the course of six or seven years the whole were completely subdued or rendered tributary, by which encroachments the Maharatta dominions came in contact with those of the British nation. In

1785-6 the Poona Maharattas carried on an unsuccessful warfare with Tippoo, and were obliged to purchase peace with the cession of some valuable provinces, all of which they recovered by their alliance with the British government in 1790.

Sevajee Madhoorow, the young Peshwa, died in consequence of a fall from the terrace of his palace in 1795, and the empire was rent by the internal dissensions which followed that event. Ultimately the deceased Peshwa's son Bajerow was seated on the uneasy throne, but his authority extended no further than that portion of the Maharatta empire termed the Poona sait, comprising most of the original country of the tribe, but none of their conquests. The last appearance of a federal combination was in 1795, when the computed number of troops assembled for the purpose of invading the Nizam, nominally under the Peshwa (exclusive of Pindaries, Looties and other depredators) was estimated at 127,000 horse and foot, and probably amounted to half that number.

From the above date until the 25th October 1802, Bajerow the Second ostensibly ruled as Peshwa; but on that day the forces of Dowlet Row Sindia, combined with those of the Peshwa, being totally defeated near Poona by Jeswunt Row Holcar, the Peshwa fled towards Severndroog, in the Concan, where he embarked for Bassein, which he reached on the 1st December. On the 31st of that month a treaty of perpetual friendship and alliance was concluded between the fugitive monarch and the British government, which virtually abolished the Maharattas as a federal empire, establishing in its stead the relatively independent states of Poona, the Nagpoor raja, Sindia, Holcar, and the Guicowar. In the beginning of May 1803, Bajerow was reinstated in his capital by General Wellesley, who also assisted him to settle with his numerous jaghiredars and subordinate chiefs. A longer peace now ensued than had ever before been experienced by the Maharatta empire; but the Peshwa's internal government, still left to himself, was wretchedly conducted, the administration of justice being neglected, while the utmost revenue was exacted. If any tendency to commotion appeared, the British troops were called in to suppress it; and the miserable people naturally imputed their sufferings to the power that upheld their sovereign, in whose treasury an immense surplus revenue was accumulating. In the course of the ten years that followed the treaty of Bassein the Peshwa, by the measures he pursued, was successful in ruining a majority of the old Maharatta families; and being naturally of an artful, rapacious (though timid) disposition, he made many petty attempts to revive the claims for plunder which the Maharattas, from long custom, seemed to think nothing more than a just privilege, which they had a right to exercise on all their neighbours, considering a predatory inroad not to be a violation of friendship, but a legitimate exertion of the forces of the state.

The Maharatta constitution from the commencement had always been more aristocratic than despotic, and the territorial arrangements of the empire, singular; the possessions of the different powers being interspersed and blended with each other. A large proportion of the Peshwa's former dominions extended along the west coast of India; yet until the treaty of Bassein he possessed some lands to the north of Delhi, and held others within a few miles of Surat. It was no uncommon occurrence for a district, or even a single town, to be held by two or three chiefs, and some were the joint property of the Nizam and Peshwa; but the latter, although the acknowledged head of the Maharatta army, held very little territory directly in his own power. Within his nominal jurisdiction the Guicowar was included, and he received an annual tribute from the Gujerat peninsula. From the southern jaghiredars he received little except military service, and from his insulated lands in

the province of Malwa and other remote countries his remittances were scanty and precarious.

At the court of Poona all the high offices were hereditary. The dewan (prime minister), the furnavese (chancellor), the chitnavese (secretary), and even the commander-in-chief, or bearer of the jerry put, or national standard, were all situations held by descent. The Prittie Niddee was originally the prime minister under the rajas of Sattara, the Senapati the hereditary general, the eight Purdhans were hereditary ministers under the Prittie Niddee. The southern jaghiredars, and the principal officers of state, were Brahmins; the Bhoonslas of Nagpoor, the Guicowar, and the Powar family were of the Khetri; the Sindias and Holcars of the Sudra tribe. For the payment of the different military corps there was an establishment of officers, to enforce justice between government and its servants; but the multiplication of checks had apparently no other effect than to increase the corruption. Not only half the grain and forage allowed to the horses was embezzled, but horses were changed, reported dead, and every species of the most flagitious corruption practised with impunity, owing to the general interest and participation therein. As a set-off against these palpable defalcations, the government withheld the pay of the troops, which occasioned much clamour from the chiefs, who seldom, however, proceeded to extremities while their illicit profits were secure; and the tardy receipt of payment from the state furnished a specious pretext for not paying the poor sepoy. The latter was, in consequence, often compelled, through destitution, to seek another service, with the loss of all his arrears, which his leader collected, if he could, or compounded the whole for a part. But after all, these extortions seldom remained with him, having been generally anticipated by loans from the monied Brahmins, at an exorbitant rate of interest, who were, in their turn, squeezed by the sovereign.

It was one peculiar feature of the Maharatta constitution that the government always considered itself in a state of war, which was a principal source of revenue. On the day of the festival called the Dusserah, or Doorga pooja, towards the end of September, at the breaking up of the rains, the Maharattas used to prepare for their plundering excursions. On this occasion they washed their horses, sacrificing to each a sheep, whose blood was sprinkled with some ceremony, but the flesh eaten with none. In 1797 Dowlet Row Sindia was supposed to have slaughtered 12,000 sheep; the Brahmin leaders gave their servants money instead. The number of genuine Maharattas in the conquered provinces remote from the seat of government did not use to bear a much greater proportion to the natives than the British in India at present do. The territories they possessed in Upper Hindostan were for many years only retained under their authority by the introduction of European officers into their armies, who opposed a system of discipline to the irregular valour of the Rajpoots and native Mahomedans. Among the native powers, as in most governments purely despotic, the prince, unless he possesses great talents, soon becomes a cipher, the prime minister engrossing all the authority. To this rule the Maharatta states were no exception, and the office of premier being invariably bestowed on the person who could furnish most money, every subaltern situation was, in consequence, disposed of to the best bidder; and to the most dignified chief in the Maharatta empire a bribe might be offered, not only without offence, but with a positive certainty of success.

Among this people the gradual progress of refinement is discernible, from the wild and predatory Maharatta, almost semi-barbarous, to the polished and insidious Brahmin, whose specious politeness and astonishing command of temper leave all European hypocrisy in the shade. This

extraordinary urbanity qualifies them *in the highest degree for public business. The bulk of the people were without property, few having an opportunity of acquiring wealth* except the powerful Brahmins, who were the principal functionaries under the state. *Their avarice was* insatiable, and if ever the madness of accumulation was accompanied by the highest degree of folly, it was here exemplified; for although the Brahmin was permitted to go on for years in the practice of extortion, his wealth at last attracted the cupidity of the prince, when he was *obliged to disgorge, and perhaps* confined in a fortress for life. If he happened to die in office, his property was sequestrated. This expedient for raising money formed a considerable portion of the contingent revenue, and was known by the name of goona geeree, or crime penalty.

From this disquisition on the nature of the people we now return to the conduct of their prince, whose scarcely concealed hatred to the British at length burst forth into the bitterest hostilities. The first overt act was the murder of the Guicowar's ambassador, *Gungadhur Shastry, in* 1815, effected through the direct agency of Trimbuckjee Dainglia, who had risen to the highest station from the basest origin. He was at first a menial servant, but afterwards promoted, on account of his superior profligacy, to be one of the Peshwa's social companions, and at last his decided favourite and prime minister. Mr. Elphinstone early foresaw the consequences that must ensue, and gave a prophetic warning of an impending rupture. The endeavour to screen the Peshwa's reputation, by throwing the whole guilt of the assassination on Trimbuckjee, was met so perversely, that in 1815 his intrigues at almost every court in India were discovered, and after long forbearance, the fact was notified to him. On this occasion he neither denied the charge nor attempted to palliate it, but vowed the strictest fidelity for the future. He was notwithstanding soon after detected in a repetition of his intrigues to effect a general confederacy against the British nation, and it became absolutely necessary to anticipate this incorrigible plotter. His capital was in consequence *surrounded*, and although no new terms were imposed, he was compelled to fulfil the whole treaty of Bassein, and cede certain districts yielding a revenue of thirty-four lacks of rupees, besides making a temporary surrender of Singhur, Poorunder, and Ryeghur, as pledges for his future fidelity.

Notwithstanding these endeavours still to keep him on the throne, and in the station of a sovereign prince, the intensity of his hatred to the *British nation, and savage desire to* murder Mr. Elphinstone, precipitated a rupture, which, if longer delayed, might have been attended with a more mischievous result. He had trusted to the co-operation of Sindia, Ameer Khan, Holcar, and the Berar raja, but did not know that by the skilful distributions of the British armies, the two first were reduced to a state of nullity. In the spring of 1817 matters had proceeded to such an *extremity that a war appeared* inevitable, but his fears still predominated until the 15th November of that year, on which inauspicious day, having mounted his horse, he joined his army, then encamped at the Parbutty hill to the south-west of Poona, which proceeded to attack the residency. from which the resident had just time to escape. All the houses of which it consisted were first plundered and then set on fire, by which atrocity much valuable property was destroyed, and along with it Mr. Elphinstone's books and manuscripts were destroyed, an irreparable loss to India and the British nation. Next day the Maharattas were attacked and defeated by the forces under Colonel Burr, and also in another sharp action on the 16th November, the morning after which the Peshwa's camp was found deserted, all his tents being left standing, and one

enormous gun named Maha Cali, or the great destroyer. Finding himself thus baffled and defeated by mere detachments, the Peshwa lost all confidence in his own soldiers, and never after rose above the character of a wandering and desponding fugitive.

Subsequent to these operations at Poona, Bajerow fled south towards Sattara, where he took possession of the raja and his family, whom he carried along with him in his erratic flights, east, west, north, and south, to escape the hot pursuit of his enemies. At length, after suffering much distress and many surprises, General Smith, in February 1818, compelled Gokla to risk a cavalry action at Ashta, in which that distinguished commander was slain, his troops defeated, and the Sattara raja with his family captured. From hence Bajerow with the shattered remains of his army fled north towards Candeish; but being met and totally defeated at Soonee by Colonel Adam, all his chiefs deserted him except Trimbuckjee, Ram Deen (a Pindary), the Vinchoor Cur (named Baloobah), and the widow of Gokla. This dispersion of the leaders in various directions contributed to prolong the escape of the Peshwa, as they misled his pursuers, and rendered it impossible to distinguish the true line of his flight. He in consequence remained at large some time longer in a state of incessant motion, marching, counter-marching, and flying, a mode of life completely at variance with the slothful and luxurious habits of a wealthy Brahmin. His line of march, however, had been so devious, that his pursuers were completely at fault, and while he remained uncaptured, the delay threatened a protracted warfare, with all its attendant tumult, defalcation of revenue, and enormous military expenditure.

Under these circumstances it happened most fortunately that the Peshwa of his own accord made overtures to Sir John Malcolm, who then commanded in Malwa, and whose ascendant over the minds of the natives and their chiefs was universal. A negociation ensued, which was conducted on the part of that officer with such firmness and conciliatory address, that after much hesitation, it ended in Bajerow's renouncing all sovereignity for ever for himself and family, and surrendering himself on the 3d of June 1818 a prisoner to the British government, with a pension of eight lacks of rupees per annum. This chief's abdication dissolved at once the whole Maharatta confederacy, and broke a charm which mere force was not capable of effecting. Nothing could be more fortunate than such an early termination of the war, and the pecuniary sacrifice made to obtain it was trifling, compared with the benefits that ultimately resulted; all feelings of resentment having long been disarmed by the abject condition to which he was reduced. Bittoor, a place of Hindoo pilgrimage, only a few miles distant from the large cantonment of Cawnpoor, was subsequently fixed on for the future residence of the exiled monarch, to which depôt he was accompanied by the Vinchoor Cur and the widow of Gokla. Here he bathes daily in the Ganges, indulges in the high living of a Brahmin, maintains three expensive sets of dancing girls, and lives surrounded by low sycophants and intriguers.

The name and authority of Peshwa being thus annihilated, with the reservation of certain districts for the Sattara family, the whole of the Poona territories, roughly estimated at 50,000 square miles, and a population of four millions, were occupied for the British nation. But the whole of this does not actually belong to the British government, and what does belong to it is not all under its direct administration. The other possessors are the Sattara raja, the Colapoor raja, and on a smaller scale the Nizam, Sindia, Holcar, the Berar raja, and the Guicowar, Angria, the Punt Sachem, the Prittie Niddy, the Putwurdens and other jagheerdars. If all expenses, civil and military, jaghires, cessions, claims, &c. were

deducted, the balance to be derived from our Maharatta acquisitions would in a great measure depend on superior management, the whole revenue immediately after the conquest having been absorbed by the current expenditure.

Contrary to expectation, on the first conquest of the Maharatta country, crimes were found of much rarer occurrence than in the Company's old provinces. The commonest was murder, from revenge stimulated by jealousy, disputes about landed property, and frequently about village rank and dignity. The Brahmins, who have long conducted the courts of justice, are an intriguing, lying, corrupt, unprincipled race, when in power coolly unfeeling and systematically oppressive, and now generally discontented. The Maharatta military chiefs are generally coarse, ignorant, and rapacious, and so much resemble their common soldiers that they might change places without much striking the observation of a European. Of all these classes, however, we only see the worst specimens; and were they again reduced, as in the time of Aurengzebe, to a state of freebooting desperation, they might become the most dangerous opponents that Asia could produce against the valour and discipline of Europe. The Maharatta peasantry have still a pride in the former triumphs of their nation, and retain some ambition to partake in military exploits; but although circumstances might again turn them into soldiers and robbers, their present habits are frugal, sober, and industrious. Upon the whole, the Maharattas as a nation are inferior to their Mahomedan neighbours in knowledge and civilization, in spirit, generosity, and perhaps in courage; but they are less tainted with pride, insolence, tyranny, effeminacy and debauchery; less violent, less bigotted, and, except while collected in armies on foreign service, more peaceable, mild, and humane.

No territory of similar extent in India contained so many fortresses as that which belonged to the Peshw Besides thirty-five forts ceded by th treaty of Poona he had 154 forts at th breaking out of the war of 1818, exclu sive of those held by the independen chiefs and jaghiredars. When acquire by the British, it became necessary t destroy all that were not actually o military or political importance, lest they should become the refuge of insurgents and hill banditti.

The country conquered from the Maharattas, with the exception of the principality of Sattara, and some other smaller portions, which still remained under native chiefs, was divided into several large districts, each under the management of a single officer, generally a military one, with the title of collector, but exercising also the functions of judge of circuit and magistrate; while over all these the chief commissioner residing at Poona, with a collector under him, superintends the difficult districts, and makes an annual circuit through the greater part of them.—(*Elphinstone, Miscellaneous MSS., Prinsep, Capt. Duff Grant, Tone, the Marquis of Hastings, Bishop Heber, Malet, Eetul Punt, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

MAHAVILLY GUNGA.—A river of Ceylon, which rises in the Neuraellia mountains, and flowing through the valley of Kotmale, joins at Passbage a small branch which has its source in Adam's Peak, and esteemed the main branch by the natives. It afterwards passes the town of Candy, thence to the plains of Bintenney (a distance not exceeding thirty miles); it hurries down a descent of more than one thousand feet perpendicular, receiving by the way an accession of many waters. At Bintenney (where it has reached the base of the mountains) it attains its greatest magnitude, being 540 feet broad when the depth of water at the ford is five feet. After its arrival in the plain it subdivides into branches, of which the principal, 160 years ago, is supposed to have joined the sea near Cattiar, but at present it disembogues by the Virgal branch between Trincomalee and

Baticalao. It might probably be rendered navigable at Bintenney, but at present its channel is so obstructed by sand-banks, as to be impracticable even for boats.—(*Davy, &c.*)

MAHÉ (*mahi, a fish*). — A town in the province of Malabar, and formerly the principal French settlement on that coast. Lat. 11° 42′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E. This place is finely situated on a high ground on the south side of a river, where it joins the sea, the site being in every respect preferable to that of the neighbouring British settlement at Tellicherry. It may be here remarked, that generally all the spots selected by the French for the establishment of their factories were, in point of local circumstances and geographical situation, much superior to those chosen by the English. The latter appear to have been influenced by the temporary resort of commerce, while the first were guided by more enlarged views, which to them, however, never had any beneficial result. The river at Mahé is navigable for boats a considerable way inland, and in fair weather small craft can with great safety pass the bar. The town has been neat, and many of the houses good; but the whole was in a decaying state until the British commercial residency was removed to this port from Tellicherry. The principal export is pepper, the staple commodity of the province.

Mahé was settled by the French in A.D. 1722; but captured by the British forces under Major Hector Munro, in 1761. It was restored at the peace of Paris, in 1763; again taken in 1793, and again restored at the peace of 1815.—(*F. Buchanan, Orme, &c.*)

MAHEIDPOOR.—A small town in the province of Malwa, twenty-four miles north from Oojein; lat. 23° 29′ N., lon. 75° 46′ E. This place stands on the right bank of the Sepra river, 1,600 feet above the level of the sea; and in 1820 contained 348 houses, when, with the pergunnah attached, it yielded to Holcar a revenue of 1,39,340 rupees. The fort stands on the high banks of the Sepra, but it has no ditch, and the wall has never been completed.

On the 21st December 1817, the army nominally commanded by Mulhar Row Holcar, but in reality by Ghuffoor Khan, and other refractory Patan chiefs, was totally routed by the British forces under Sir Thomas Hislop, with the loss of all their artillery. The British casualties in the battle were very severe, amounting to 174 killed, and 604 wounded.—(*Public MS. Documents, Malcolm &c.*)

MAHIM. — A considerable town, with a small fort annexed, in the province of Aurungabad, situated near the northern extremity of Bombay, and having a ferry for crossing to Bandora, in the island of Salsette. Lat. 19° 2′ N., lon. 72° 58′ E. At this place there is a tomb of a Mahomedan saint, with a mosque attached to it. Here is also a Portuguese church, and college of Roman Catholic priests. In 1816, Mahim, Worley, and their dependent villages, contained 15,618 inhabitants.

MAHMUDPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, seventy-five miles N.E. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 24′ N., lon. 89° 34′ E.

MAHMUDSHI (*Mahmudshahi*). — A zemindary in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, which was formerly entirely surrounded by that of Rajeshahy. In 1784 it contained 844 square miles, and had been held by the Brahmin family of Dev from the time of the soubahdar Jaffier Khan. Like the rest of southern Bengal, it is intersected by innumerable branches of the Ganges, and eligibly situated for inland commerce. In some spots the mulberry is cultivated, but rice and esculents are its staple commodities.—(*J. Grant, &c.*)

MAHOBA. — An ancient city in the province of Allahabad, but at present mostly in ruins; 28 miles

S.W. from Banda; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 79° 51′ E. Around this town many temples, tombs, and other vestiges of former magnificence are scattered, and on the rocky height above the town are the remains of a fortress. In the neighbourhood there is a large tank, formed by raising a vast embankment of large granite stones across a valley from hill to hill, where during the rains a body of water two miles in circumference accumulates. According to Hindoo tradition Mahoba was a town of note, and capital of a dynasty so early as A.D. 1083, when it was captured by the raja of Delhi.—(*Fitzclarence, Franklin, &c.*)

MAHOMDY (*Mukomedi*).—A town in the province of Oude, fifty-eight miles S.E. from Bareily; lat. 27° 58′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

MAHOMEDPOOR.—A small town in the province of Candeish, circar of Beejaghur, fifteen miles travelling distance from Bheekungaum. In A.D. 1820 it contained 229 houses, and 1,037 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MAHONA.—A town in the Agra province south of the Chumbul, thirty-four miles S.W. from Gualior; lat. 25° 54′ N., lon. 77° 27′ E.

MAHORE.—A district in the province of Berar, situated partly among the Sesachill mountains, and described by Abul Fazel, in A.D. 1582, but respecting which in modern times scarcely any thing is known. The town of Mahore is situated among the hills above-mentioned, to the south of the Payn Gunga river; lat. 19° 54′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E., 100 miles S.S.E. from Ellichpoor.

MAHOWL.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-two miles north from Juanpoor; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 83° 38′ E.

MAHARAJEGUNGE (*Maha Raja Ganj*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, thirty miles N.E. from the town of Purneah; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 87° 57′ E.

MAHTUR.—A town in the Gujerat province, a noted residence of Bhatts and Bharotts, four miles S.S.W. from Kaira; lat. 22° 44′ N., lon. 72° 47′ E.

MAHY OR MHYE RIVER (*mahy, a fish*).—This river has its source in a small plain five miles west of Amjerah, and shortly after passing Bhopawer, pursues a northerly course, until it reaches the confines of Bagur, where the boundary hills give it a sudden turn westward past Mongana. It is subsequently diverted from this direction by the mountains of Mewar, which bend it south, which course it pursues, with little deviation, until it joins the gulf of Cambay, after a winding course of about 380 miles. Although it flows through so great an extent of country, the mass of its waters never attain any navigable depth until within about fifteen miles of its mouth.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MAHY KAUNTA (*or Myhie Kaunta*).—A fiscal and military division thus named in the province of Gujerat, not confined, however, to the banks of the Mahy river, but stretching about 120 miles along the northern frontier of the province, where it is bounded by a chain of mountains. This is a hilly tract, containing forests of great extent, intersected by many streams, near the banks of which the country is of very difficult access, on account of the deep intricate ravines and thick jungles, which have enabled the wild inhabitants to maintain their independence amidst the revolutions of the surrounding communities. Towards the south the country is more cleared, and the streams unite to form the Saubermatty and Mahy.

At present a considerable portion of this territory acknowledges subjection and pays tribute either to the British government or to the Guicowar. The inhabitants mostly consist of Rajpoots, Coolies, and Muckwanries, the remainder Marwaries and Gujeraties. The first resemble their caste in Rajpootana;

the second live mostly in the jungles; the third are Coolies nominally converted to the faith of Mahomed, but scarcely altered in rites or manners, and are chiefly found in the south-eastern quarter of the Mahy Kaunta.

In A.D. 1821 this territory contained about 121 chiefs, *viz.* 11 Rajpoots, 79 Coolies, 31 Muckwaries, and other independent Mahomedans. The most considerable is the raja of Eder, sprung from the Joudpoor family, and possessed of a principality yielding about four lacks of rupees per annum; the next is the raja of Lunawara; the rest are pettychiefs, the lords of from one to fifty villages. Although nominally tributaries, they do not appear to have been ever thoroughly subdued either by the Moguls or Maharattas. In 1820 the Guicowar made over his share of the management of the Mahy Kaunta to the British government; the chiefs engaged to abstain from plundering, and to act against plunderers; to give up criminals, refrain from private warfare, dismiss foreign mercenaries, refer all disputes to the superior power, and live like honest men.

A large proportion of the lower classes here are Coolies or Bheels, for they are called by both names indiscriminately. They are of diminutive stature, but with countenances expressive both of liveliness and cunning. They wear small turbans, and always carry a bamboo bow, with a quiver of arrows. They are described as active and hardy, incredibly patient of thirst, hunger, and fatigue, vigilant and enterprizing, fertile in expedients, secret in their movements, and admirably calculated for night attacks, surprises, and ambuscades. They are naturally timid, yet on some occasions have shewn extraordinary boldness in their attacks, even on British stations. On the other hand, they delight in plunder, are averse to regular industry, addicted to inebriety, and quarrelsome when intoxicated. Their numbers can scarcely be guessed at. The whole of the wild parts of Gujerat and Malwa, all the mountainous tracts in Candeish and Berar, together with the range of ghauts and its neighbourhood as far south as Poona, are occupied by Bheels and Coolies. It has been calculated that there are 66,000 in the Kaira district, where they are not particularly numerous, and the aggregate must consequently be considerable. Were they united, their numbers would certainly be formidable; but although the Coolies have a strong fellow-feeling for each other, they never think of themselves combined as a nation, and have never yet made common cause to oppose an external enemy.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Maiduck (*Madhuca*).—A district in the province of Hyderabad, situated to the north of the capital, and intersected by the Manjera river. The town of Maiduck stands in lat. 18° 5′ N., lon. 78° 24′ E., fifty-three miles north from Hyderabad.

Maihker.—A small division of the Berar province, situated above the ghauts, between the twentieth and twenty-first degrees of north latitude. The town of Maihker stands among the hills to the north of the Payn Gunga river; lat. 20° 6′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E., forty-seven miles E.N.E. from Jalna.

Mailcotta (*Mailcotay*).—A town in the Mysore province, situated on a high rocky hill, commanding a view of a valley watered by the Cavery, seventeen miles north from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 39′ N., lon. 76° 42′ E. The town is open, well-built, and paved, and contains several pagodas, besides bowlies and choultries. The most striking edifice is a temple dedicated to Narasingha, or the man lion, which covers the highest pinnacle of the mountain, and is approached by a staircase cut in the rock, and ornamented at intervals with smaller temples and arches. The large temple, dedicated to Chillapulla Raya, is a square building of great dimensions, entirely surrounded by a colonnade, the columns of which are nearly ten feet high. The structure, as it stands,

is said to have been put into its present form by Rama Anuja Acharya, who is generally supposed to have lived about A.D. 1000; but the spot is indebted for its sanctity to an incarnation of Krishna, under the name of Chillapulla Raya, who is said to have honoured this scene with his presence, and some of his adventures.

The great tank at the bottom of the hill is a very fine one, and surrounded by buildings for the accommodation of religious persons. The natives believe that every year the waters of the Ganges are miraculously conveyed to it by subterraneous passages. The jewels belonging to the great temple are very valuable, and even Tippoo Sultan was afraid to seize them.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MAINA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Ashta, from which town it is distant eleven miles. In 1820 it contained 500 houses, and belonged to the nabob of Bhopaul.

MAIRS (*or Mhairs*).—See MARWAR.

MAISDY.—A town in the province of Gundwana, thirty miles north from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 38′ N., lon. 77° 44′ E.

MAISSY (*Mahesi*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, fifty-two miles north from Patna; lat. 26° 21′ N., lon. 85° 10 E.

MAITHILA.—See TIRHOOT.

MAITWARAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Sonekutch, which in 1820 contained 400 houses, and belonged to Sindia; lat. 22° 59′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E.

MAJULI.—See ASSAM.

MAJUR.—By this name is distinguished that large portion of the Tatta province lying to the east of the main trunk of the Indus, and bounded on the east by the Goonee branch of the Indus, continued under various appellations, through the great salt morass called the Runn, to the sea; and bounded on the south-east by Cutch. Respecting the interior of this geographical subdivision scarcely any thing is known, the only portion as yet explored being that which lies contiguous to the banks of the Goonee, from near Hyderabad to Alibunder, along which many small villages are scattered, with considerable appearances of cultivation. The surface is level, and the soil has a strong saline tendency, until at the south-east corner it degenerates to a salt morass.

MAKEWARA.—A small town in the province of Delhi, division of Sirhind, within five miles of the Sutuleje river, the course of which, fifty years ago, ran close to its walls, but has since taken a more northerly direction; lat. 30° 50′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E., twenty-one miles E. from Ludeeanna.

PROVINCE OF MALABAR.

(*Malayavar, the region of Malabar.*)

This region extends along the western coast of India from Cape Comorin to the river Chandraghiri, in lat. 12° 30′ N.; but the term is often erroneously applied to the whole tract of country from Bombay to the southern extremity. The province of Malabar is a distinct portion of the coast to which this designation is appropriated, the other modern subdivisions being Cochin and Travancore; but in Hindoo geographical systems the whole region is denominated Kerala. The Malabar language extends as far north as Neeliseram, where commences the country of Tulava (misnamed Canara) and the Tulava language. In some ancient tables, Tulava is considered a subdivison of Kerala, which is said to have extended from Gaukarna round Cape Comorin to the river Tumbrapurni, in Tinnevelly. It is mentioned by Marco Polo in A.D. 1295. What immediately follows under this head relates chiefly to the modern British province of Malabar, which comprehends several sections of country not strictly belonging to the Hindoo region of that name; but a very large

proportion of the statistical observations, and of the descriptions of the manners, customs, institutions, &c., are equally applicable to the territories of Cochin and Travancore, and are referred to when these countries are delineated.

According to Mr. Thackeray, the British district of Malabar contains 7,249 square miles, of which Wynaad occupies 1,250 square miles, and a portion of Cochin 745. The countries of Malabar and Canara lie immediately below the western ghauts, and the sea is every where in sight. These countries are comparatively low, but broken, and much interspersed with back-water, rivers, and extensive ravines, shaded with forest and jungle, and thickly populated; for the upland is barren, and it is in the ravines and on the margins of rivers that the inhabitants reside. In the month of February the low country becomes excessively hot, and the vapours and exhalations so dense, that it is difficult to distinguish objects at the distance of five miles, which curious process may be viewed from the tops of the mountains when the cold is scarcely supportable. The heat increasing during the months of March and April, a prodigious quantity of this aerial moisture is collected, which remains day and night in a floating state, sometimes ascending nearly to the tops of the mountains, where it is checked by the cold: but descending immediately, is again rarified, and becomes vapour before it can reach the earth. In this state of buoyant perturbation it continues until the setting in of the monsoon, when the whole is condensed into rain; some falling on the low country, some among the mountains, and what escapes is blown across Mysore, immediately over the Seringapatam valley.

The British province of Malabar, extending almost 200 miles along the sea-coast, may be divided into two portions. By far the most extensive consists of low hills separated by narrow vallies, and from the Ghauts this always extends a considerable distance to the westward, and sometimes even to the sea. The hills are seldom of any considerable height, and in general have steep sides with level summits. The sides possess the best soil, and are in many places formed into terraces. The summits, bare in many parts especially towards the north, expose to view large surfaces of rock. The valleys have in general rivulets that drain off the superfluous water, but in some places the declination is not sufficient, and during the rainy season the ground is much overflowed. The soil in these vallies is extremely fertile.

The second portion of Malabar consists of poor sandy soil, and is confined to the plain on the sea-coast, seldom above three miles wide, and in general not so much. Near the low hills these plains are most level and best fitted for the rice cultivation. Nearer the sea they are more unequal in their surface and rise into low downs, admirably adapted for the coco-nut tree. This division of the province is wonderfully intersected by inlets of the sea, which often run for great lengths parallel to the coast, receiving the various mountain streams, and communicating with the ocean by narrow and shallow openings. In other parts, where there are none of these salt inlets, the low lands within the downs on the sea-coast are in the rainy season totally overflowed; for the fresh water has then no vent, and must consequently stagnate until it gradually evaporates. As it dries up it leaves the sands fit for some particular kinds of rice; and it is probably owing to this cultivation that the stagnant waters do not injure the salubrity of the air; for Malabar, generally, may be esteemed a healthy country. The rivers and mountain streams are here very numerous, but on account of the vicinity of the Western Ghauts to the sea, their courses are very short. Few of the rivers have any peculiar appellation, each being named after the most remarkable place near to which it flows. In the Irnadu district, gold dust is collected

in the river that passes Nilambar, and is a branch of the stream that falls into the sea at Parupanada.

There is a great deal of valuable teak timber about Manarghaut, but being remote from a navigable river, the expense of men and elephants for transporting it, even a short distance, would be too great to admit of profit. Besides this, the forests are claimed by the Nairs, who pretend to proprietary right in the soil and trees, which, whether well founded or not, they have actually exercised, by selling and mortgaging the trees to Moplay merchants. The sandal-wood is not produced in Malabar; but as the greater part grows immediately above the Western Ghauts, all that is produced towards the sources of the Cavery ought to come through Malabar as the nearest sea-coast. This sandal-wood is of the best quality, but the few trees found within the limits of the province are totally devoid of smell. The brab-palm is so abundant about Palighaut, that the jagary prepared from it commonly sells at *2s. 7½d.* per cwt., and with proper care an excellent spirit might be extracted.

Many varieties of rice are cultivated according to soil and season, the whole chiefly watered by the periodical rains. The inhabitants plough but superficially, burn the roots and grass turned up, and manure with ashes and leaves; in some parts with salt mud. The seed is sown from March to July, but mostly in April and May; the harvest is reaped from July to January. Some lands are said to return only three, some sixteen of the seed expended; on some lands two, on others three crops are produced annually. The first crop may be sown in April; after a month it is weeded, and in four months the grain is ripe, having undergone altogether three weedings. The second crop is ploughed from July to September, in a month is transplanted, is weeded twice, and ripe in three months. For the third crop (which is probably too many) they plough and sow in December and January, weed every month, and for want of water are obliged to have recourse to small reservoirs of water. The dry cultivation is of little importance. The soil on the hills is gravelly and stony; that along the coast a sandy, light, poor soil; about the ghauts rather more mixed with rich vegetable mould. The heavy rains of Malabar and Canara seem to tear away the soil and leave nothing but loose stones and sand on the hills. Some valleys are very rich, because they become receptacles for the fine particles of mould which stop when they can be carried no further; but on the whole the soil of the province is poor.

Some good coco-nut trees, well taken care of, will yield 500 nuts, while others, in a bad soil and neglected, will not produce a dozen. It has been calculated that in Malabar there are three millions of coco-nut trees; but it is an absurd attempt for a sovereign to count the nuts of a whole province. At present one-third of the supposed gross produce is taken as a tree-tax; but as the inhabitants always conceal a great deal, probably not more than one-fifth is realized by government. Black pepper has long been the chief article of European export from Malabar, principally to Europe direct, or to Bombay and China, for which last-mentioned market many articles the produce of Malabar are peculiarly suited. The remainder is chiefly exported by native traders to the bay of Bengal, Surat, Cutch, Sinde, and to other countries in the north-west of India, and a considerable quantity goes to the Arabian merchants of Muscat, Mocha, Hodeida, and Aden.

In Malabar this plant is chiefly propagated by cuttings, and requires much care while young, as during the hot season it must be watered, and its roots sheltered by leaves. It is supported by jack trees, which produce their own peculiar fruit, and afford some nourishment to the pepper vine, which bears about the fourth or fifth year, and yields from

three to seven pounds weight, according to circumstances. Government takes a share of the supposed produce, which like tithes in England, tends to discourage the culture; but on the other hand, no encouragement should be given to the growth of pepper, or indeed of any other produce of the earth, on which the land-tax ought to remain fixed and invariable. By lightening the taxation of the ground appropriated to any particular production, government, in fact, offers a bounty for its culture, and may thus promote the increase of what is already redundant, and directly discourage the production of something else. The land ought to be equally taxed, whatever be its produce, and, if wanted, a distinct revenue may be raised by a fiscal duty on the article; by which arrangement the proprietor would neither be stimulated to the culture of any particular article nor deterred by a high land-rent. Pepper is an article of which but a small proportion is for home consumption, and must be exported; a duty on exportation would consequently be less oppressive than a direct tax on production so heavy as one-half or one third or even one-fourth; and with reasonable attention smuggling might be prevented. For half the year a contraband trade is not practicable by sea or land, because the ports and passes are equally shut by the prevalence of the monsoon. Neither ships nor bullocks can pass from May to September, and the vexation of custom-house officers would be much less than a direct assessment on each pepper vine; in both cases the frauds and embezzlements would be about equal.

In Malabar and Canara, except on the sea-coast, the inhabitants seldom reside together in any considerable numbers; villages therefore, or rather an assemblage of houses into townships, are rarely to be seen, a village here being rather an extent of country than an aggregation of dwellings. Persons employed by government and merchants inhabit the principal seaports, but in the interior the agricultural population is scattered in little groups over the face of the country, each landlord residing apart on his own private estate. It is different in the Carnatic, where the whole population is congregated into village communities, each of which has been compared to a township or corporation. In A.D. 1817 the desams (divisions or villages) in the Malabar district, all single and independent of each other, were 2,212. A naad is a sub-division, and they were all formerly assessed, not with a certain number of pagodas, but with a certain number of Nairs. The gardens are usually enclosed with a high bank and deep gulley, like a rampart and ditch; the houses are built within the enclosure, under the shade of the jack, betel-nut, and coco-nut trees. The high grounds are scarped into terraces, one above the other, for the cultivation of dry grains, and the vallies are laid out in rice fields.

The villages or groups of houses in Malabar are the neatest in India, and much embellished by the beauty and elegant dress of the Brahminy girls. The houses are placed contiguous in straight lines, so as generally to occupy two sides of a square area, that is a little raised, kept clean, and free from grass. The [illegible] is of an excellent quality, neatly smoothed, and either whitewashed or painted; but the houses being thatched with palm-leaves, are extremely combustible. Both bazars and villages have been introduced by foreigners, the Nambouries, Nairs, and all the aboriginal natives of Malabar living in detached houses surrounded by gardens, and named desas or desams. The higher ranks wear little clothing, but are remarkably cleanly in their persons; cutaneous distempers being never observed, except among the slaves and the very lowest castes. The native breeds of cattle and buffaloes are extremely diminutive, and but little used for the transportation of goods, which are mostly

carried by porters. No horses, asses, swine, or goats are bred in Malabar, or at least the number is quite inconsiderable, all those required by the inhabitants being imported from the eastward. The original inhabitants had no poultry; but since Europeans have settled among them the common fowl may be had in abundance. Geese, ducks, and turkies are confined to the sea-coast, where they are reared by the Portuguese.

Almost the whole land of Malabar, cultivated and uncultivated, is private property, held by tenure right, which conveys full and absolute interest in the soil. The origin of landed property here is ancient and obscure, and admits of much speculation. The history which appears most satisfactory to the natives, asserts that both Malabar and Canara were created, or rather raised from the bottom of the sea, for the use of the Brahmins; but without going quite so far back, it may be observed that the present landlords and their ancestors appear to have had possession for a space of time beyond tradition, and that the validity of their claims has never been doubted. There are rules established, of great antiquity, for the transfer, lease, and mortgage of estates, which could never have been the case if the property in the soil had been vested solely in the sovereign. The adjacent countries of Travancore, Cochin, Bednore, and Canara, have the same institutions, and nearly the same rules regarding private property, which never seem to have been called in question, or disputed by any public authority, except Tippoo. It appears next to certain, also, that originally all the lands in Malabar belonged to a hierarchy, and were attached to certain pagodas; but at a very early period were alienated to the present proprietors (Jelmkars), and many usurped since the period of Hyder's invasion. The Moplays under the shortlived Mysore Mahomedan dynasty, and the rajas, have probably possessed themselves of lands to which they had no right; but their individual usurpations do not affect the general rights of the proprietors, who consider them fully as solid and sacred as the tenures of landed gentlemen in England. If a proprietor die intestate and without heirs the estate escheats to the sovereign; but as the landholders claim and practice the right of adoption, and the power of devising their estates in whatever manner they choose, more especially to pagodas, the lands seldom revert to the government for the want of heirs. The exclusive right of the ryot to the hereditary possession and usufruct of the soil is known by the name of jenm or birthright, and may possibly at one time have existed more generally in Hindostan; but in other provinces of India, armies of horse could carry into immediate execution the mandates of a despot, who never admitted of proprietary rights, because his wants incited, and his power enabled him to draw the whole of the landlord's rent.

The succession to landed property is guided by the same rules that regulate the succession to other sorts of property. Among the castes where the sister's son performs the funeral obsequies, he succeeds as heir; in those where the castes follow the common Hindoo law the sons perform the necessary solemnities, and succeed to the estate, except where some slight differences prevail respecting the elder brother's portion. In one caste the estate is divided among the sons, as in other parts of India; in another among the sisters, or rather among the sisters' sons. The succession of the sisters' sons has no particular effect upon, nor does it arise exclusively from the institution of private property in the soil, but originates from the ancient privileges of the Brahmins to visit the females; for when this sacred body had established their hierarchy, they probably wanted soldiers and mistresses, and therefore established the Nair caste, the males acting in the first capacity, and

the females in the second. The head peons or foot soldiers probably became rajas, and gradually acquired possession of the land; and the fathers of the children being uncertain, the succession followed the mother, about whom there could be no doubt. Such appears to have been the origin of this most preposterous custom, which when established among the polished Nairs, became fashionable, and was adopted by other castes, and even by the fanatic Moplays, who are followers of the Arabian prophet.

The region named Malabar being intersected by many rivers, and bounded by the sea and high mountains, presented so many obstacles to invaders, that it escaped subjugation by the Mahomedans, until it was attacked by Hyder in 1766; the original Hindoo manners and customs have consequently been preserved in greater purity than in most other parts of India. The other inhabitants of the province are Moplays (or Mahomedans), Christians, and Jews; but their number collectively is inferior to that of the Hindoos, some of whose most remarkable usages and institutions shall be here described, reserving the more local details for the geographical subdivisions respectively. The rank of caste on the Malabar coast is as follows:

1st. Namburies or Brahmins.

2d. The Nairs of various denominations.

3d. The Tiars or Tears, cultivators of the land and freemen.

4th. The Malears, who are musicians and conjurors, but also freemen.

5th. The Poliars, who are slaves or bondmen, and attached to the soil.

The system of distances to be observed by these castes is specified below:—

1st. A Nair may approach, but must not touch a Brahmin. A Tiar must remain thirty-six yards off. A Poliar ninety-six steps off.

2d. A Tiar must remain twelve steps distant from a Nair.—A Malear three or four steps further. A Poliar ninety-six steps off.

3d. A Malear may approach, but must not touch a Tiar.

4th. A Poliar must not come near even to a Malear, or to any other pure caste. If he wishes to speak to a Brahmin, Nair, Tiar, or Malear, he must stand at the above prescribed distances and cry aloud to them.

The great superiority of the Namburies and Nairs over the other castes, and the long existence of military tenures, has probably established this extraordinary degree of subordination. In some parts of the province churmun is a term applied to slaves in general, whatever their gradation be, but in some other parts it is confined exclusively to the Poliars. Even among these wretched creatures the pride of caste has full influence, and if a Poliar be touched by another slave of the Pariar tribe he is defiled, and must wash his head and pray. The Pariar, in the plural, belong to a tribe below all caste, all of whom are slaves, and acknowledge the superiority even of the Niadis, but pretend to be higher than two other races. The Pariar tribe eat carrion, and even beef, so that they are looked upon as equally impure with the Christians and Mahomedans. The Niadis are an outcast tribe, not numerous, but so very impure, that even a slave of any dignity will not touch them. They have some miserable huts built under trees, but generally wander about in companies of ten or twelve, keeping a little distance from the roads, and when they see any passenger set up a howl like dogs that are hungry. Those who are moved to compassion lay down what they are inclined to bestow and retire; the Niadis afterwards approach and pick up what has been left. The Brahmins here are both fewer in number and less civilized than in the other provinces of Southern Hindostan. They subsist by agriculture, priestcraft, and other devices; but are not employed as revenue servants, this being probably the

only province of the south where the Brahmins do not keep the revenue accounts.

The next most remarkable caste are the Nairs, who although Sudras are at once the chief landed proprietors and principal military tribe of Malabar. The highest in rank are the Kirut or Kirum Nairs, who on all public occasions act as cooks, which among Hindoos is a sure mark of transcendant rank, for every one may eat food prepared by a person of higher rank than himself. The second rank of Nairs are more particularly named Sudras, but the whole acknowledge themselves, and are allowed to be, of pure Sudra origin. There are altogether eleven grades of Nairs, who form the militia of Malabar, directed by the Brahmins and commanded by the rajas. Before the country was disturbed by foreign invasion their submission to their superiors was great; but they exacted deference with an arrogance rarely practised but by Hindoos in their state of dependence. A Nair was expected instantly to cut down a Tiar (cultivator) or Mucua (fisherman) who presumed to defile him by touching his person; and a similar fate awaited a Poliar or Pariar who did not turn out of his road as a Nair passed. The peculiar deity of the Nair caste is Vishnu, but they wear on their foreheads the mark of Siva. The proper road to heaven they describe as follows:—"The votary must go to Benares, and afterwards perform the ceremony for deceased ancestors at Gaya. He must then take up water from the Ganges, and having journeyed over an immense space of country, pour it on the image of Siva at Rameswara, in the straits of Ceylon. After this he must visit the principal places of pilgrimage, such as Juggernauth in Orissa, and Tripetty in the Carnatic. He must always speak the truth (a severe penance to a native), give much charity to poor and learned Brahmins, and lastly, he must fast, pray frequently, and be very chaste in his conduct."

The Nairs marry before they are ten years of age, but the husband never cohabits with his wife. He allows her oil, clothing, ornaments, and food, but she remains in her mother's house, or after her parent's death, with her brothers, and cohabits with any person she chooses of an equal or higher rank than her own. In consequence of this strange arrangement no Nair knows his own father, and every man considers his sister's children as his heirs. His mother manages the family, and after her death the eldest sister assumes the direction. A Nair's moveable property on his death is equally divided among the sons and daughters of all his sisters. All Nairs pretend to be soldiers, but they do not all follow the martial profession, many practising the arts of husbandry, accounts, weaving, carpenter's work, pottery, and oil-making. Most of the Nairs and Malabar Hindoos are as remarkable for a thoughtless profusion, as in other parts they are notorious for a sordid economy. The Nairs generally are excessively addicted to intoxicating liquors, and are permitted to eat venison, goats, fowls, and fish.

From the time of Cheruman Permal until that of Hyder, Malabar was governed by the descendants of thirteen Nair chiefs sisters; among whom and among the different branches of the same families there subsisted a constant confusion and change of property, which was greatly increased by several inferior chiefs assuming sovereign power; the country thus became subdivided in a manner of which there is no other example, and it was a common saying in Malabar, that a man could not take a step without passing from one prince's dominions into those of another. Hyder, taking advantage of these divisions, subdued the northern division, now called the province of Malabar, while the Rajas of Cochin and Travancore subdued all the chiefs of the central and southern divisions. To a European the succession among the Malabar chiefs appears very ex-

traordinary, and as an instance, that of the Shekurry family may be described. The males of this family are called Achuns and never marry; the ladies are called Naitears and live in the houses of their brothers, whose household affairs they manage. They have no husbands, but may grant their favours to any person of the military caste who is not an Achun. All the male children of these princesses become Achuns, all the female Naitears, and all are of equal rank according to seniority; but they are divided into two houses, descended from two sisters of the first Shekurry raja. The eldest male of the family is called Shekurry, or first raja; the second is called Elliah Raja, or heir apparent; the third Cavashiry Raja; the fourth Talan Tambouran Raja; and the fifth Tari Putamara Raja. On the death of the Shekurry; the Elliah succeeds to the highest dignity; each inferior raja advances a step as the oldest Achun becomes Tari Putamara. In 1801 there were between one and two hundred Achuns, each of whom received a certain proportion of the fifth part of the revenue granted by the British government for their support.

The *Cunian* or *Cunishun*, are a caste of Malabar, whose profession is astrology, besides which they make umbrellas and cultivate the earth. In many parts of India an astrologer or wise man is called Cunishun, yet they are of so low a caste, that if a Cunian come within twenty-four feet of a Brahmin he must forthwith purify himself by prayer and ablution. They are said to possess powerful mantras (charms) from fragments of the fourth Veda, which is usually alleged to be lost. The towns along the sea-coast are chiefly inhabited by Moplays, who were originally imported from Arabia, and have probably traded to the Red Sea since the time of Alexander the Great. When the Portuguese discovered India, the dominions of the Zamorin, although ruled by a superstitious Hindoo prince, swarmed with Mahomedans, and this class of the population is now considered greatly to exceed in number all other descriptions of people in the British district of South Malabar. This extraordinary progress of the Arabian religion does not appear (with the exception of Hyder and Tippoo) to have been either assisted by the countenance of the government or obstructed by the jealousy of the Hindoos, and its rapid progress under a series of Hindoo princes demonstrates the toleration, or rather indifference, manifested by the Hindoos to the peacable diffusion of religious opinions and practices at variance with their own. Although thus early imbued with the Mahomedan faith, and fanatics, yet they have retained or adopted many original Malabar customs hostile to the maxims of their prophet. In former times, and under relaxed governments, they were cunning traders, desperate robbers, served as irregular infantry, and turned their hand to any thing. The Tiars and Mucuas are very industrious classes, the first on shore as cultivators, the latter afloat as boat and fishermen; there are no weavers or manufacturers deserving of notice.

There are six sorts of Chemurs or slaves, like the *Pariars* of *Madras*, and no other tribe is bought or sold in Malabar. They are said to have been caught and domesticated by Parasu Rama for the use of the Brahmins, and are probably the descendants of the aborigines, conquered by the Chola kings and driven into the jungles, but at last compelled to prefer slavery and rice to freedom and starvation. They are generally, but not always, sold with the land, two slaves being reckoned equal to four buffaloes; they are also let out and pledged. Their pay is an allowance of rice and cloth. They sometimes run away, but never shake off their servile condition, and if reclaimed, the children they may have had during their wandering are divided between the old master from whom they fled and the new one to whom they resorted. It is probable that by degrees, under the British

domination, this class will be converted to free labourers.

In the country about Palighaut by *far the greater* part of the labour is performed by slaves, who are the absolute property of their devarus or lords. They are not attached to the soil, but may be sold and transferred in any manner a master thinks fit, except that a husband and wife cannot be sold separately, but children may be taken from their parents. These slaves are of various castes They erect for themselves temporary huts, which are little better than large baskets. A young man and his wife will sell for from £6. 4s. to £7. 8s.; two or three children will add £2. 10s. to the value of the family. These slaves are very severely treated, and their diminutive stature and squalid appearance evidently shew a want of adequate nourishment. There can be no comparison of their condition with that of the slaves in the West Indies, except that in Malabar there are a sufficient number of females, who are allowed to marry any person of the same caste with themselves. The personal labour of the wife is always exacted by the husband's master, the master of the girl having no authority over her so long as she lives with another man's slave; a practice that ought to be adopted in the West-Indies.

At a very early period the Christian religion made a considerable progress on the Malabar coast, which contains, in proportion, more persons professing that faith than any other country of India. In the creeds and doctrines of the genuine Malabar Christians, considerable evidence exists of this being a primitive church. The supremacy of the Pope is denied; the doctrine of transubstantiation has never been maintained by them; and they have always regarded, and still regard, the worship of images as idolatrous, and the existence of purgatory fabulous. In addition to these circumstances they never acknowledged extreme unction, marriage, or confirmation, to be sacraments. The Portuguese forced the Syrian Christians to a union with the Roman Catholic church: but after a union of about sixty years about ten thousand of them resumed their independence and have continued separate from the Roman Catholics, forming the sect now denominated Syrians. The greater proportion, however, of the Syrian churches still adhere to the Roman Catholic religion, and with converts from other tribes compose a population of nearly 150,000 persons, divided under three ecclesiastical jurisdictions, *viz.* the Archbishop of Cranganore the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon, and the bishop of Verapoly. The two first are suffragans of the Archbishop of Goa, who appoints the prelates and inferior clergy; the other is composed of Carmelite friars, and receives its bishop and friars from the Propaganda Society at Rome. The Hindoos of the Malabar coast reckon by the era of Parasu Rama, and separate it into cycles of 1,000 years; the year A.D. 1800 being reckoned to correspond with the 976th of the cycle. The characters used in Malabar are nearly the same with those used among the Tamuls of the Carnatic for writing poetry, and the poetic language of both races is nearly the same.

Malabar was probably conquered at a very early period by some king from above the ghauts, who established the priests and pagodas, and governed the province by a theocracy of Brahmins, which for their own convenience established the Nairs, in the same manner as the Velmah Dhorahs were introduced into the Northern Circars. In process of time the Nairs became rajas, and continued to govern Malabar like independent princes, but still as deputies of the gods who occupied the pagodas, until Hyder's invasion in 1760, prior to which event there is no proof that any land-tax was levied in Malabar. The landed proprietors were certainly previously liable to render military service, and probably

to contribute a per-centage in case of invasion. The priests and pagodas had lands of their own, and besides lands the rajas had sources of revenue from fines, royalties, imposts, personal taxes, and plunder. There was no standing army except the militia, nor any expensive establishments to support, so that there does not seem to have been any necessity for a land-tax. In Hindostan it is only great states that want, or have the power to collect a land-tax.

Hyder sent an army into Malabar in 1760, and came in person in 1761. He then subdued the country, and according to his custom drove out the rajas, except such as conciliated his favour by immediate submission. In 1782 Orshed Beg Khan, who was appointed his deputy, made considerable progress in subjugating and settling the country, and matters went on with tolerable smoothness until 1788, when Tippoo descended the ghauts, and proposed to the Hindoos the adoption of what he was pleased to designate the true faith, and to convince them he was serious he levied contributions on the infidel seculars, and forcibly circumcised the Brahmins, Nairs, and such other dignified classes as he thought deserving of the Mahomedan paradise. This produced a stout rebellion: but he returned next year with so overwhelming a force, and exercised his power so rigorously, that in spite of the local superstition he confirmed his sway, drove out the rajas, and circumcised all he could get hold of.

On the breaking out of the war between Tippoo and the British in 1790, the rajas and Nairs were leading a predatory life in the jungles, or were refugees in Cochin and Travancore. They were encouraged to join the British army, but the war was terminated without their assistance. The Bombay government immediately reinstated them in their possessions, and made a settlement with them for the revenues; but they failed to fulfil their engagements in their successive settlements, and their mode of ruling was found to be such as could not be tolerated or protected, consistent with humanity. A scene of confusion and accumulation of balances ensued, which lasted for many years. Commissioners, superintendents, and collectors followed each other in rapid succession, but tranquillity came not. The revenue was inadequate, yet could not be collected; the government lenient, yet insurrections were incessant; while the Moplay rebellion to the southward, and that of Cotiote to the northward, distracted the country, and precluded financial arrangements. This deplorable state of affairs was in a great degree attributable to the restoration of the expelled rajas, and the subsequent influence of the British government only commenced when they were completely shut out from all interference. They were in consequence deprived of all authority, and allowed one-fifth of their country's revenue, to support their dignity, which is more than any state in Europe can spare for that purpose. They were nevertheless dissatisfied, became refractory, and at last hoisted the standard of rebellion, thereby creating a confusion that could only be subdued by a military force.

In this condition of affairs, the Bengal presidency ordered the transfer of the province to that of Madras, and it was committed to the charge of a superior officer having three subordinate collectors. Since the above period a great improvement in the internal affairs of the province has taken place, which may be in a great degree ascribed to the judicious local arrangements of Mr. Warden, the collector, who was appointed to that important office in 1803, and discharged his duties for eight years. The revenues have since been realized without difficulty, and a considerable proportion through the medium of indirect taxation, the land-tax being light in comparison to that exacted in most of the other provinces of India. In 1816-17 the total public

revenue collected in the Malabar district amounted to 6,77,045 pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors, the total population to 907,575 persons. The whole foreign trade of this extensive province, both import and export, is with a few exceptions confined to Bombay, the Persian Gulf, and Gujerat. The imports consist of alum, arsafœtida, cotton, piece-goods, shawls, broadcloth, nankin, rice, and sugar, from Bengal and Bombay, and coir and coco-nuts from Travancore. The exports are more numerous and miscellaneous, consisting chiefly of coir, coco-nuts, timber, rice, ghee, dry ginger, piece-goods, cardamoms, pepper, sandal-wood, sapan-wood, tumeric, arrow-root, betel-nut, iron, &c. &c.—(*Thackeray, F. Buchanan, Parliamentary Reports, T. Munro, Wilks, Dow, Duncan, Lambton, &c.*)

Malabar Point.—A remarkable promontory on the island of Bombay, where there is a cleft rock of considerable sanctity, to which numerous Hindoo pilgrims resort for the purposes of regeneration, which is effected by passing through the aperture. This hole is of considerable elevation, situated among rocks of difficult access, and in the stormy season incessantly lashed by the surge of the ocean. Near to it are the ruins of a temple, which is reported to have been blown up by the idol-hating (yet worshipping) Portuguese. In the neighbourhood is a beautiful Brahmin village, built round a fine tank of considerable extent, with broad flights of steps down to the water. Here Brahmins are found leading the lives most agreeable to them, the ceremonies of religion forming the business of their lives, and a literary and contemplative indolence their negative pleasure. Some of them are said to have lived to an advanced age on this spot without having once visited the contiguous city of Bombay. In the vicinity there is a temple of Lakshmi, the goddess of plenty, much resorted to by pilgrims and pious persons, who have besides the additional benefit of optional regeneration offered in the passage through the venerated type above alluded to.—(*Moor, &c.*)

MALACCA.

A long peninsula situated at the southern extremity of India beyond the Ganges, and extending from the second to the eleventh degree of north latitude. The isthmus of Kraw, about ninety-seven miles in breadth, connects the north with the British province of Tenasserim; on all other sides it is washed by the Indian ocean. In length it may be estimated at 775 miles, by 125, the average breadth.

This peninsula, when examined more particularly, may be described as stretching from Point Romania, the southern extremity, lat. 1°22′ N., to opposite the northernmost point of Junk Ceylon, lat. 8° 27′ N., this island forming the northernmost extremity of the east side of the straits of Malacca, where the peninsula unites with the isthmus of Kraw. The Siamese possessions, prior to the capture of Queda in 1821 reached to the river Trang, lat. 7° 20′ N. At the above date the most important subdivisions and Malay principalities were the following, viz. Queda, Peràk, Salengore, Malacca, Rumbo, Johore, including Pahang and Pakanja, Tringano, Callantan, and Patany, mostly named from the different small rivers on which these capitals stand.

The Siamese then possessed to lat. 7° N.; the Malays the whole of the sea-coast on both sides to the southern extremity, with the exception of Salengore, a Buggess colony. The inland parts to the north are inhabited by the Patany people, who seem a mixture of Siamese and Malays, who occupy independent dusuns or villages. Among the forests are a race of Caffres, not exceeding four feet eight inches in stature. The Menancabowers of the peninsula are named from an inland

people of Sumatra (Pulo Percha), between whom and the Malays of Johore a distinction is made, but none is perceptible. A range of extremely bleak mountains runs through this territory from one extremity to the other, appearing to be a continuation of the chain which commences at the Brahmaputra river in Assam, and reaching without essential interruption to the southern extremity of Malacca. From these innumerable small streams of short course descend on both sides, fertilizing the soil, and furnishing sites for the towns and villages. These are so astonishingly numerous that between 2° 20′ and 8° 30′ N. there are eighty-four rivers, mostly, however, choked up with sand-banks and mud bars. Besides the continent many small islands belong to this peninsula, more especially at the southernmost point, where they are so thickly clustered together that they seem a prolongation of the main land, being only separated by narrow straits. The west coast is also abundantly studded with villages, and among the rest Pulo Penang or Prince of Wales' island; but on the eastern side, in the gulf of Siam, the sea is more open and less interrupted.

The peninsula of Malacca is by the natives named '*the land of the Malays*' (Tanah Malayu), and from its appearing to be wholly inhabited by that people, has generally been considered as their original country; but this is not the case, Menancabow, an inland country of Sumatra, having evidently been the source from whence the Malay tribes migrated, about A.D. 1160, and settled near the southern extremity of the peninsula.

Like most other Malay countries, the sea coast is well covered with wood, and exhibits a great extent of verdure; but, as far as is yet known, the teak-tree is thought to be a stranger. As in many other parts of India, the jungles, from their extreme density and luxuriance, are unfavourable to the multiplication of animals, game is in consequence difficult to be procured. The soil is not remarkable for its fertility, but the seas and rivers afford an abundant supply of fish. Buffaloes are the principal cattle, and elephants of a highly esteemed breed are found adjacent to the Siamese territories; but the horse is not yet naturalized in any part of the Malay peninsula. Besides tin it exports bees'-wax, birds'-nests, cutch, dammer, fishmaws, rice, rattans, shark fins, betel-nut, canes, dragon's blood, ivory, gold-dust, sago, aguilla-wood, sapan-wood, and hides of various sorts. The grand import is opium.

Among the aboriginal natives are the Oriental negroes, who inhabit the interior. Though of a more diminutive stature, they have the woolly hair, the jetty black skin, the thick lip, and flat nose, that characterize the African. By the Malays they are named Samang, and they are distinguished into the Samangs of the lower lands, who from their vicinity to the Malays have borrowed some slender portion of civilization, and the Samangs of the mountains, who are represented as being in the lowest stage of savage existence. The first have fixed habitations, plant small quantities of rice, and barter with the Malays for food or cloths, the resins, bees'-wax, and honey of their forests. The last present the genuine picture of the hunter's life, and are divided into petty communities, perpetually at variance. The least improved of these tribes inhabited the mountain Javai, in Queda, bordering on the dominions of Siam, altogether not exceding 400 in number, subdivided into petty communities of thirty or forty families each. They go entirely naked, although the weather, from the great height of the mountain, is inclement, and are said to have no fixed habitations, wandering through the thick forest in search of roots and the smaller sorts of game, which last they destroy with poisoned arrows. These acknowledge no chief, and with respect to some descriptions of goods, appear to have a community of property. Their language differs much from that of the Malays,

who describe it as a mere jargon which can only be compared to the chattering of large birds. Another race of the same people have their station further south, in a less elevated tract within the territories of Perak. These are more numerous and civilized, as they acknowledge a chief, and are able to destroy the large sorts of game, and even elephants.

The Malays are named Khek by the Siamese, and Masu by the Burmese. Their language, which contains a great number of Sanscrit, many Arabic, and even some Portuguese words, has from its sweetness been called the Italian, and from its general diffusion the Hindostany, or lingua Franca of the East. It is derived from the kingdom of Menancabow, in the central regions of Sumatra, from whence it spreads over the Malayan peninsula and the adjacent islands. It now exists as a sort of conventional dialect, peculiarly fitted for acquirement from the simplicity of structure, and recurrence of vocalic sounds. It is without complexity or artificial arrangement, juxtaposition being every thing. There is no inflexion of any part of speech to express relative number, gender, time, or mood, and a word is often used, with alteration, as a noun, adjective, verb, or adverb. The tenses of a verb are sometimes expressed by auxiliaries, sometimes by adverbs, but not unfrequently both are omitted, and the reader is left to gather the meaning from the context, the sentiments being rather hinted at than expressed. After repeated trials, 100 Malay words were found to contain twenty-seven primitive Malayan, fifty Polynesian, sixteen Sanscrit, and seven Arabic. The best Malay is spoken and written in the state of Queda, within sight of Prince of Wales' Island. It is written in the Arabic character, modified by increasing the number of diacritical points, in order to soften the harsh Arabic gutturals. The Malay spoken at the island of Tidore, when visited in 1521 by Peggafitta, the companion of Magellan, accords exactly with the Malay of the present day; which proves that no material alteration has taken place in the tongue during the lapse of three centuries.

The great sources of all the Malay poetic legends are the Javanese, the Keling (spoken on the west side of the bay of Bengal), and the Arabic languages. The Malayan literature consists chiefly of transcripts and versions of the Koran, commentaries on the Mahomedan law, and historic tales in verse and prose; principally the latter. Many of these are original compositions, and others are translations of the popular tales current in Arabia, Persia, India, and the neighbouring island of Java. There are also many compositions of a historical nature. One of this description, the Hickayat Malacca, relates the founding of that city by a Javanese adventurer, the arrival of the Portuguese, and the combats of the Malays with Albuquerque, and the other Lusitanian commanders.

With respect to the religion professed by the Malayan princes prior to their conversion to the Mahomedan little is known, but it was probably some modification of the Hindoo, much corrupted and blended with the antecedent superstitions of the country. They do not appear, before their conversion, to have had any eras, with which the Hindoos are usually amply provided; and they appear also to have been ignorant of the ordinary division of time into days, weeks, and years, a division well known to the Javanese. Even now, however, the more enlightened of them are seldom able to tell their own age, or the year of their birth. The modern Malays are of the Sooni Mahomedan sect, but do not possess much of the bigotry so common among the western Mahomedans. Men of rank have their religious periods, during which they scrupulously attend to their duties, and refrain from gratifications of the appetite, together with gambling, and cock-fighting; but these intervals of contrition are neither long nor frequent.

The genuine Malay governments are of the rudest construction, and founded on principles nearly feudal. The head of the state is a raja, who usually assumes the title of sultan, introduced by the Arabians, and under him are a certain number of dattoos, or nobles, who have a train of subordinate vassals. In general, however, the sultan is but little obeyed by his chiefs, or the last by their people, further than accords with their fear or inclination. Violent acts of direct power are committed both by the chiefs and their superior, but there is no regulated system of obedience. The heir presumptive is in all states named the raja mooda, or young raja, and, with the institution of the dattoos, appears peculiar to the nation. The free Malays are an intelligent, active, industrious body of men, engaged, like the Chinese, in trade and foreign commerce. Many of their prows are very fine vessels, and navigated with considerable skill; but the Malay sailor, although strong, and occasionally active, is by no means perseveringly so, and during extreme cold or bad weather, is found to skulk sooner than the more feeble but docile Bengalese lascar.

The distinctive character of the Malay is certainly of a very extraordinary nature, and exhibits a striking contrast to the mild and timid Bengalese. In the pursuit of plunder the Malays are active, restless and courageous, as in their conquests they are ferocious and vindictive. To their enemies they are remorseless, to their friends capricious, and to strangers treacherous. The courage of the Malay may be considered of that furious and desperate kind that acts on the impulse of the moment, rather than that steady, deliberate conduct that preserves its character under all circumstances. It is equally dangerous to offend or punish a Malay; in the one case he will stab privately, in the other during the paroxysm of his rage. By the same impetuous temper that renders him impatient of control, he is driven to desperation by misfortunes, whether they arise from unavoidable circumstances or from his own misconduct. In either case he rarely submits to his fate with coolness, but flies to his favourite opium, to prepare him for the commission of the desperate act he meditates. Animated to a phrenzy, he lets loose his long black hair, draws his deadly creese, and rushes into the streets, determined to do all the mischief he can during the short time he has to live. This is what is usually called running a-muck, (from his calling amok, amok, kill, kill,) and rarely happens in a British settlement, but formerly were of frequent occurrence among the Dutch, who were execrable for the fiend-like cruelty of their punishments. An unfortunate propensity to gambling is one of the chief causes that drives the Malay to this state of desperation. So passionately attached is he to every species of gaming, and more especially of cock-fighting, that his last morsel, the covering of his body, his wife and children, are often staked on the issue of a battle to be fought by his favourite cock.

The predominance of the European naval power in the Eastern seas has tended very much to repress the piracies and depredations of the Malays, who are certainly no longer the bold and enterprizing race of buccaneers they are represented to have been. The authority of law and justice, however, is still but imperfectly established; trading vessels visiting their ports must still be armed, and, notwithstanding every precaution, are still sometimes cut off, and their crews murdered, under circumstances of singular treachery and atrocity. In fact, except being under stricter coercion, the Malay of the present day is not to be distinguished from one of several centuries back, as may be seen from the descriptions of our early voyagers. He is quite the same animal in manners and customs; but his numbers probably have not increased, their marriages not being prolific, and

British settlements on the island of Sumatra. — (*Marsden, Singapoor Chronicle, Col. Farquhar, Crawfurd, Captain Horsburgh, Elmore, Johnson, Thorn, &c.*)

Malari.—A village in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon; lat. 30° 41′ N., lon. 79° 56′ E. Although this is the largest village on the Niti road into Tibet, yet in 1818 it contained only forty houses, built of rough stones, cemented with clay and mixed with wood, from one to four stories high. The site of Malari is in a triangular plain, bounded on two sides by streams and on the other by steep hills, which in the month of June are covered with snow, thin on their projecting points, and deep in the ravines. The flat land in the neighbourhood is sown with the panicum miliaceum.

The inhabitants of this wretched hamlet call themselves Rajpoots, but pay little or no attention to the restrictions of caste. They are low in stature, with a mixture of the Tartar and Hindoo countenance, filthy in their persons, and overrun with vermin. They are dressed in coarse woollens, woven by the females, who are remarkably industrious. About the end of September they migrate further south, where they remain until next year, towards the conclusion of May, and from dwelling in two countries are termed Dobasas and Marchas; the first a well-known name at Madras (Dobhash), the latter approaching that of the ancient borderers on the English and Scottish frontier.

The people of Malari and its neighbourhood carry on a considerable trade with the Undes country, beyond the Himalaya, and also with the lower portion of the hills. From the first they procure borax and salt, which they carry south, and return with grain to Bhutant; but the traffic can only be carried on during a few months of the year. The merchandize is laden on goats and sheep, which feed as they go, and are easily driven by a few persons, so that the charges of transportation are not great; the total amount, however, is comparatively insignificant. The goats used in this traffic are bred in the country, and migrate twice in each year. They are short-legged, of a strong compact form, and travel about ten miles per day over extremely difficult and rugged roads. Slaves are much employed in agriculture, and used to be purchased here by the Gorkhas.—(*Moorcroft, Trail, &c.*)

Malativo.—A town in the island of Ceylon, situated on the banks of a river, which at the mouth is sufficiently deep to admit small craft; lat. 9° 15′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E.

Malda (*Malada*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, which in 1808, independent of Nawabgunge, contained about 3.000 houses, seven-eighths of which were built with stones and bricks from the ruins of Gour. The town is miserably huddled together along the side of the Mahananda river, and during the rainy season is nearly insulated. The improvements made in Europe in the arts of dyeing and weaving have greatly injured the trade of Malda, where many of the largest houses have become ruinous, among which are the French and Dutch factories, many years established for the purchace of silk and cotton goods. The Malda mangoes have a high reputation, and are certainly one of the finest fruits in the world; but few of these actually grow at Malda, all the plantations of the most valuable kind being on the opposite side of the Mahananda, in the Purneah district. In some parts the produce is of little value, for a large portion of the mangoes, when allowed to ripen on the tree, contain an insect (a species of curculio) that renders them useless. The natives usually ascribe the presence of the insect to the soil and climate, but it appears to depend more on the quality of the fruit, it being remarked that some trees always escape in the worst districts; but on this subject

great uncertainty still prevails.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MALDIVES ISLANDS (*Malaya Dwipa, the Isles of Malaya*).—These islands extend from the eighth degree of north latitude, and are formed of numerous circular clusters, enclosing interior smooth shallow seas, surrounded by chains of coral reefs, in general level with the water, and extending from fifty yards to half a mile from the shore. In some parts of the reefs there are openings large enough to admit boats, and where bays are formed by projecting parts of the cluster; there are in some places anchorage over a sandy bottom, mixed with shells and coral. The total number of the Maldives isles and islets has been estimated at 1,200, but they have never been completely explored, although so near to the course of ships outward-bound. They are certainly numerous, for what viewed at a distance from a ship's deck appears to be one isle, on nearer approach is discovered to be ten or a dozen of rocky islets. The large islands are inhabited and cultivated, but a great proportion consists of mere rocks, rocky shoals, and sand-banks, flooded at spring tides; many covered with coco-nut trees, and a thick growth of underwood, where fresh water may be found within a few feet of the surface.

Mall is the chief island, on which the sultan resides and holds his court. It is nearly three miles in circumference, of a circular form, and surrounded on all sides by a reef except the western, where an artificial reef has been constructed, connecting the extremities of the great reef, and leaving two narrow entrances, passable for boats, and shut by booms when danger is apprehended. On this surrounding reef the surf beats high; but between the reef and the mainland the water is as smooth as a mill-pond, and generally about 100 yards broad. Within this enclosure the vessels and boats belonging to the island are moored, and in 1819 these cons[illegible] of seven vessels for foreign trade, and about fifty fishing-boats. Except on the eastern side, which is the strongest by nature, Mall is fortified with bastions and redoubts, ten in number, on which above 100 pieces of artillery, twelve-pounders downwards, are mounted, but neither the guns nor the fortifications on which they are mounted would oppose any serious obstacle to a regular attack. The town extends over the whole island, and is remarkably clean and neat; the entrance for boats being by several small gates on the western side, where the sultan resides in a sort of citadel, with high loopholed walls, encompassed by a wet ditch fourteen feet wide. The palace within, however, is but a poor looking house, two stories in height, with a mat roof; but there are two mosques of considerable size. The throne is hereditary in the family of the sultan, whose relations reside with him in the citadel, along with his regular troops, which in 1819 amounted to 150 men, clothed in red and armed with swords and musquets. It does not appear that he maintains an armed marine, which would seem indispensable for the government of a kingdom of islands. In 1619 the total population of Mall was estimated at 2,000 persons, ruled by a sultan named Mahomed Aynock Khan. The revenues are collected throughout the islands in cowries, coco-nuts, and tortoise-shell, and the nearest islands supply the capital with fowls, eggs, limes, bread-fruit, plantains, &c.

Some years back one or two vessels used annually to visit the Maldives from the British settlements to load cowries, but from the delay they experienced, and the unhealthiness of the climate, this traffic has for some time been abandoned by Europeans, and is now principally carried on by the Maldivians in their own boats, constructed of the trunks of coco-nut trees. They arrive at Balasore in Orissa, situated at the

mouth of the Calcutta river, in the months of June and July, when the south-west monsoon is steady in the bay of Bengal, loaded with coir, coco-nut oil, and all the other produce of the coco-nut tree, their grand staple, cowries, salted fish, tortoise-shell, &c. They sail homeward-bound about the middle of December, during the north-east monsoon, with their returns, more than one half of which consists of rice from Bengal, the granary of the Indies, the rest sugar, hardware, broad-cloth, cutlery, silk stuffs, coarse cottons, tobacco, &c. In 1810 the imports to Bengal averaged about 1,84,129 rupees, and the exports to about 90,182 rupees. Many Maldivian boats go annually to Acheen, carrying dried bonetoe in small pieces, about two or three ounces in weight, and when properly cured as hard in the centre as horn; ships occasionally resort also to the Maldives to procure dried shark-fins for the China market, being esteemed by that gross-feeding nation an excellent seasoning for soup, and highly invigorating.

The Maldivians profess the Mahomedan religion, yet in some of their customs resemble the Biadjoos of Borneo. They launch annually a small vessel loaded with perfumes, gums, and odoriferous flowers, and turn it adrift to the mercy of the winds and waves, as an offering to the spirit of the winds, and sometimes similar offerings are made to the spirit whom they term king of the sea. With their internal government we are little acquainted; but it does not appear, although separated into distinct islands and groups of islands, that they engage in war with each other, or with their neighbours the Laccadivians. Indeed by such Europeans as have visited them they are described as a mild, inoffensive race, and very hospitable, for which they frequently meet with a most ungrateful return, as happened in 1812, when Lord Minto interfered, and had the captain (a Brazilian Portuguese) and crew of a country ship punished for the brutality of their conduct, and sent presents to such natives as had suffered by their misconduct. On this occasion it was first discovered that the sovereign of the Maldives had long been accustomed to send annually an embassy to Ceylon, which has been continued since the acquisition of that island by the British government.

According to some these islands were first stocked with inhabitants from Malabar, but from various circumstances it appears more probable that a large proportion of the existing natives are the descendants of colonists from Arabia. They are said to have a language peculiar to themselves, but this subject has never been satisfactorily investigated, and at present the Hindostany is certainly the language of discourse and most universally understood. The French East-India Company had formerly a corporal and some soldiers stationed on one of the islands, but they were removed by M. Lally in 1759. When Hyder invaded Malabar in 1766 he contemplated the conquest of the Maldives also, but never carried his intention into execution.—(*Public MS. Documents, Capt. Shultz, Capt. Andrew Scott, Elmore, Forrest, Sonnerat, Leyden, &c.*)

MALEBUM (*Malibhum*).—A district in Northern Hindostan, the chief of which has been some times classed among the twenty-two rajas, and his country frequently denominated Parbut, from the immense mountains it contains. Malebum, the principal town, stands at the junction (beni) of the Mayangdi with the Narayani, on which account it is frequently named Benishehr, while Dhoral is the name of the redoubt by which it is commanded, Malebum being a term applicable to both. The country was conquered by the Gorkhas of Nepaul, during the regency of Bahadur Sah, on which event the reigning raja and his son retired to Belrampoor in the Nabob of Oude's dominions.

This is an elevated cold country of considerable extent, one-fourth of the whole being occupied by mountains

covered with perpetual snow. According to native accounts it contains mines of sulphur, cinnabar, iron, copper, and some allege of zinc, and also the remarkable hot springs of Muctinath. The copper-mines are said to be productive, large quantities being sent to the plains, besides what is used in the country and Tibet. There are three mines of mica, and rock-crystal of considerable size is found in different parts. Gold dust is collected from the sands of several rivers, and more especially of the Krishna Gunduck, the Narayani, the Bakhugar, the Modi, and the Mayangdi. In its greatest dimensions Malebum has been supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants, of whom three-fourths are Gurungs occupying the tracts west and north of the capital. The country is cultivated with the hoe, and the principal crops are barley, uya (uncertain whether rye or a species of hill-rice), eleusine corocanus, panicum italicum, and phapar. The country to the south east of the capital is called Khasant, inhabited principally by Brahmins of a bastard race (Jausis, who plough and carry burthens), Khasiyas, and various Hindoos of low birth. The houses in general have stone walls and are covered with thatch. Malebum, the chief town, stands on the west bank of the Gunduck, here thirty yards broad, in lat. 28° 32′ N., lon. 83° 13′ E., eighty miles N.W. from Gorkha.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MALLEBAUGH.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, subject to the Gorkhas of Nepaul, forty miles west from the town of Gorkha; lat. 27° 53′ N., lon. 83° 44′ E.

MALIPOOTAS ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern Seas, one of the Sooloos, which is very low and woody, and has shoals all round, extending about two miles to the north-west.

MALKAIR.—This small division of the province of Hyderabad is bounded on the west by the Beema river and contains no town of note except the one from which it derives its name situated in lat. 17° 10′ N., lon. 77° 15′ E., eighty-seven miles S.W. from Hyderabad.

MALLAVILLY (*Malayavali*).—A town in the Mysore province, twenty-six miles east from Seringpatam; lat. 12° 23′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E. This is a large mud fort, separated into two portions by a mud wall, and was given as a jaghire with the adjacent country to Tippoo by his father Hyder. About two miles S.W. from Mallavilly there is a large reservoir.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MALLIA.—A fortress in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the river Muchoo, which having passed Wankaneer in the interior, empties itself into the Runn, two miles and a half below this place. The country is low, slopes off towards the Runn, and in the rainy season is a marsh for many miles; lat. 22° 56′ N., lon. 70° 55′ E.

MALLAVER.—A village in the province of Gundwana, the residence of a Gond chief, twelve miles south from Ruttunpoor. From Bouslaghur to this place, a distance of fifty miles, the road is through a country which is one continued wilderness. In this neighbourhood there is a small subacid plum of a very pleasant taste, which grows wild.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

MALLOODOO.—A district in the north-eastern extremity of Borneo, and in many respects the most valuable that that large island comprehends. Numerous rivers fall into the bay of Malloodoo, which is reported to have good soundings throughout. The tract is populous and well supplied with food, which is a rare condition in Borneo. Rattans of an excellent quality from ten to twelve feet long may be here procured, as also clove bark.

The natives on the sea-coast assert that in the interior there is a lake named Kenneyballoo, which appears from their description to exceed in magnitude that of Manilla, and to contain many islands. It is said to

be five or six fathoms deep in some places, and to be the source of many rivers. Around its margin are numerous hamlets, inhabited by Idaan or Horaforas; but from their want of foreign intercourse, and the peculiarity of their customs, they are little addicted to traffic.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

MALOD.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-five miles west from Sirhind; lat. 30° 38′ N, lon. 75° 58′ E.

MALOGH.—A small lordship or thakooria in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, which originally depended on Keonthul, but was conquered along with the others by the Gorkhas, who levied from it a revenue of 6,512 rupees. It contains no fort but that of Timour, and formerly furnished a contingent to the paramount state in these hills of 300 armed men, and 300 porters. Its revenue in 1815 was estimated at 8,000 rupees.—(*Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

MALOWN.—A stronghold in Northern Hindostan, principality of Cahlore, elevated 4,448 feet above the level of the sea, and situated in lat. 31° 13′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E When possessed by Ammer Singh, the Gorkha commander, it consisted of a line of fortified posts upon a very difficult and lofty ridge, which projects into the river Sutuleje, between two small rivers. It capitulated to Sir David Ochterlony on the 15th May 1815.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

MALPOORA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, forty-eight miles S.S.W. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 75° 12′ E.

MALPURBA RIVER (*Malapurva*).—A river in the province of Bejapoor which rises in the western ghauts, from whence it proceeds easterly with many windings, until after a course of about 140 miles it joins the Krishna.

MALTOWN (*or Maltone*).—A town and fortress in the province of Allahabad, situated on the S.W. boundary of Bundelcund, near the hills that separate that large district from Malwa; lat. 24° 17′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E. It commands the pass known by the name of Mallown ghaut, the route by which is the easiest, and one most usually taken for the invading of Bundelcund, both on account of the practicability of the road and because it is plentifully supplied with water. Ameer Khan penetrated by this pass, which may be called the key to Bundelcund on the western quarter.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

MALUCERA.—A strong mud-fort belonging to the Macherry raja in the province of Agra, with a ditch and stone citadel; lat. 27° 24′ N.

MALWA.

(*Malava.*)

A large province of Hindostan, situated principally between the twenty-second and twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Ajmeer and Agra; on the south by Candeish and Berar; to the east it has Allahabad and Gundwana; and on the west, Ajmeer and Gujerat. In length it may be estimated at 220 miles, by 150 the average breadth. When the institutes of Acber were composed this province extended indefinitely to the south of the Nerbudda, one angle touching on Baglana to the south-west, and Berar on the south-east; but in more recent times that river has been considered its distinguishing southern boundary, on crossing which, the Deccan commences. Towards the north-west, Malwa is separated from the division of Harowty in Ajmeer by a ridge of mountains stretching east and west, near the village of Muckundra; lat. 24° 48′ N., lon. 76° 12′ E.

Such are the limits of this province in its greatest dimensions, but Malwa Proper has more restricted boundaries. This is a central elevated plateau, in general open, but diversified with conical table-crowned hills and low ridges, watered by numerous

rivers and streams, possessing a rich soil and mild climate. It is only in a few detached spots that Malwa attains a greater height than 2,000 feet; but Shaizghur, the highest peak of the Mandoo range, reaches to 2,628 feet. The city of Indore, by barometrical measurement, is 1,998 feet above the level of the sea, and the descent to the vale of the Nerbudda by the Jaum ghaut, about thirty miles to the southward, is steep and abrupt; but so gradual is the ascent from the northward, that a traveller proceeding from Jeypoor to Indore, although he has to thread several defiles, and occasionally to cross a low ridge, finds no sudden acclivity like the brink of a table-land in any part of his journey, and is only made sensible of the increasing elevation by the decreasing temperature. This descent towards the north from the Vindhya mountains, is also marked by the course of the numerous streams which have their sources in that chain, whence they flow nearly due north until they join the Chumbul, and ultimately the Jumna and Ganges.

Although less strongly marked on the east and west than on the south, there is a well indicated rise over the hilly tracts (branches of the Vindhya), which on the east has Bopaul, and on the west separates Malwa Proper from Gujerat and Ajmeer. To the north-west there is an ascent of about 200 feet to Mewar at the Chitore range, but the general level of Malwa had previously declined that amount.

The temperature of this province is usually moderate, and the range of the thermometer small, except towards the conclusion of the year. During the two months after the rains, fevers prevail; yet, on the whole, the climate may be considered salubrious. The seasons are those common to western India, the rainy, the cold, and the hot. The fall of rain during the months of June, July, August, and September, has been estimated at about fifty inches. The range of the thermometer is then remarkably limited, being about 72° at night, and 77° at noon. In January 1820, the thermometer stood at 28° Fahrenheit. During the hot season, the parching winds from the north and west are comparatively mild, and of short duration.

The soil of Malwa consists either of a loose, rich, black loam, or a more compact ferruginous mould, both noted for their fertility. Among the principal grains may be enumerated wheat, gram, peas, jowary, bajary, moong, oorud, Indian corn, and toour; the two first furnishing the largest export. Rice is only raised in small quantities for home consumption, but a surplus remains of sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, linseed, til, garlic, turmeric, and ginger. Indigo is also raised in small quantities, as is also the morinda citrifolia, a red dye plant; and the luxuriance attained by the vine has long been celebrated: the Malwa grapes are consequently of a superior quality, and are raised in sufficient abundance to furnish the bazars of Oojein and Indore.

But of all the vegetable productions opium is the most important, the soil and climate appearing singularly well adapted for the cultivation of the poppy. Soon after the British conquest it was made a fiscal monopoly, but, owing to the facility of smuggling, not a very profitable one. In 1821 the Company's opium was estimated at 1,500 maunds, and the smuggled opium at the same amount. In 1824 so rapidly had it increased, that the Company's opium was estimated at 4,200 maunds, and the smuggled at 3,000: total, 7,200 maunds. The Malwa opium is particularly esteemed by the Chinese, who assert that it contains two-sevenths more of pure opium than an equal quantity of the Patna and Benares drug. The Malwa tobacco, more especially that of the Bilsa district, is beyond all comparison the best in India, and much sought after by the votaries of the hookah.

The principal rivers of Malwa are the Chumbul, the great and little

Cali Sinde, the Mahy, the Sepra, the Parbutty, the Newy, the Ahor, and the Nerbudda, which bounds the province to the south; but, except the last, none of them are navigable. The sources of the Chumbul and Mahy are among the Vindhya hills, where they rise at no great distance from each other; yet the waters of the one ultimately fall into the bay of Bengal, while those of the other terminate in the gulf of Cambay. In 1820 the chief principalities and towns in Malwa Proper were the following:—

Oojein,	Shujawulpoor,
Indore,	Ashtur,
Dhar,	Shahjehanpoor,
Rutlam,	Dewas,
Nolye,	Dug,
Katchrode,	Gungraur,
Oneil,	Tal,
Mundessor,	Mundawul,
Bampoora,	Maheidpoor,
Munasse,	Sarungpoor,
Auggur,	Bopaul,
Seronge,	Dohud, and
Bhilsa,	Mandoo.

The Rawuls of Doongurpoor and Banswara, the rajas of Pertaubghur, Barreah and Ally Mohun, are tributary to the British government; the rajas of Rutlam, Soetamow, Lunawara, and Soonth, to Sindia; Jabbooah to Holcar. East of the Chumbul, Kotah is tributary to the British government. Narwar, Chandree, Ratghur, Bahadurpoor, Sheepoor, and Raghooghur, have been subdued by Sindia; the petty rajas of Nursinghur, Kilcheepoor, and Rajghur, are tributary to him. Some of these are not within the strict geographical limits of Malwa, but it is thought best to exhibit them all together

No great number of Mahomedans ever settled in this province, and except the Nabob of Bopaul and his dependent chiefs, there are not any persons of the Arabian faith who can boast either of hereditary rank or authority. All the Rajpoot tribes of central India trace their origin from Oude in Upper Hindostan, and were probably no more than leaders or vicegerents from the Hindoo families of Kanoje, and their number, it is likely, increased subsequent to the Mahomedan invasion of Delhi. These Rajpoots never marry into their own peculiar tribe. During the confusion and dispersion of families, many individuals of the Sudra tribe elevated themselves to the rank of Rajpoot by taking the title of Singh, which addition as a distinctive appellation is but recent with the genuine Rajpoots.

The return of tranquillity in 1818 afforded strong proofs of the stability of the native village officers in Malwa, and of the imperishable nature of that excellent institution. Many of the villages had been waste for more than thirty years, the inhabitants scattered abroad at great distances, and many by compulsion become robbers and plunderers; yet, under all the miseries of their condition, a constant intercourse had been kept up, intermarriages had taken place, and hopes cherished of their ultimate restoration to their native spot. When at length convinced that better days had arrived, they flocked to their roofless houses; and infant Potails (the second and third in descent from the expelled one) were in many cases carried at the head of these parties. When they reached their villages, every field and wall of a house were taken possession of by the owner or cultivator, without dispute or litigation, and in a few days every thing was in progress as if the peace of the village had never been disturbed.

From the long internal dissensions and the recent apparently destructive ravages of the Pindaries, it might have been expected that Malwa (within and on the borders of which these plunderers were established) would have been found, when entered by the British armies, waste and uncultivated. The direct reverse, however, of this was experienced; for although the grain was in many instances concealed and withheld, the superabundance of forage near all the villages testified the extent of its production. Rice was rarely seen, but wheat grew

in considerable quantities, and soon became the common food of the native troops. In fact, after the army under Sir Thomas Hislop had crossed the Nerbudda, so profuse was the abundance, that the supplies, transported with infinite labour and expense from a distant quarter, became a real incumbrance, while those collected by the Bombay government were never brought forward at all. The above army, when at Oojein in 1818, although consisting of only 8,000 fighting men, was supposed to have eight camp followers to each soldier, besides the quantity of forage required for the artillery cattle, when sixty Carnatic bullocks are put in yoke for the movement of an iron twenty-four-pound battering gun, fifty to an iron eighteen-pounder, and forty to a twelve-pounder.

In this province the savage tribe of Bheels are found in considerable numbers, more especially in the mountains contiguous to the Nerbudda river; but it also frequently happens that the plundering tribes of Meenas, Moghies, Ramooses, and Gonds are confounded there. The Bheels of Malwa, however, are quite a distinct race from any other Indian tribe, with high pretensions to remote antiquity. The common name of this people is Bheel (Bhilla), but they are likewise termed Nishada, both Sanscrit words denoting outcasts. They have no record or tradition of having ever possessed the plains; but they assert that they have long maintained the exclusive possession of the hilly tracts. At present they are subdivided into the classes distinguished as the village, the cultivating, and the wild mountain Bheels. Their principal chiefs, usually termed Bhoomeahs, are nearly all of the Bheelalah tribe, who claim descent from a Rajpoot father and Bheel mother. They exercise absolute power, and in the commission of the most atrocious crimes are implicitly obeyed by their followers. In appearance the wild Bheels are a diminutive, wretched-looking race, but they are active, and capable of undergoing great fatigue. The Bangries and Moghies are Hindoo tribes of the lowest caste, robbers and thieves by profession; originally, according to their own traditions, from the north-west of India and neighbourhood of Chitore. In 1820 the total of all these plundering classes, including Bheels, Sondies, Meenahs, Goojurs, and Thugs, was estimated at 90,000 persons. Owing to the total dissolution of all government throughout this part of Hindostan in the early part of the nineteenth century, the Bheels were evidently advancing in political strength, and but for the interference of the British, would have soon emerged into notice as a substantive power, having acquired from their roving and predatory habits an ascendancy over several petty native states in their vicinity, such as Rajpepla, which by their ravages they almost depopulated.

Malwa was invaded early in the thirteenth century by the Patan sovereigns of Delhi, and was either wholly subdued or rendered tributary. Its subjection to that empire continued very precarious until the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, during which period it was governed by independent sovereigns of the Afghan or Patan tribe, whose capital was Mandoo, situated among the Vindhya mountains. After the conquest of Delhi by the Mogul dynasty Malwa was soon subdued, and continued to form a province of that empire until the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, when it was invaded and overrun by the Maharattas, and finally separated from the Mogul dominions about A.D. 1732, during the reign of Sahoo Raja; but that race never succeeded in obtaining possession in the European sense, for it was in fact a continual conflict between the great and the petty plundering chiefs, each doing as much mischief as he could, with occasionally short intervals of truce, but never of peace. The ancient landholders still retained strongholds over the province; and partly by mutual convention and partly by force extorted a portion of the rents

from the neighbouring villages, and are still known by the name of Grassias. Even at present the lowest Grassia chief has his prime minister, and other public functionaries, proportionate to his lands and followers, over whom his authority is, in theory and practice, as absolute as the most despotic prince.

The banditti, afterwards so well known under the Pindaries, originated in this province, the mighty mother of freebooters, where they at first occupied the country in the vicinity of Nemawur, Kantapoor, Goonas, Beresha, and part of the Bilsah and Bhopaul territories; but in process of time extended themselves towards the centre, and would ere long have absorbed the whole. The designation of Pindary was at first applied to a body of roving cavalry which accompanied the Peshwa's armies in their expeditions; and it is impossible not to be struck with the resemblance which Pindara bears in sound to Pandour, as Cozauk does to Cossack. When the Peshwa ceased to interfere practically with Hindostan north of the Nerbudda, leaving that division of the Maharatta empire to Sindia and Holcar, the Pindarries split into two factions, assuming the names of Sindia Shahy and Holcar Shahy respectively, according as they attached themselves to the families, or rather to the fortunes of these chiefs.

With respect to their composition, the Pindaries were principally, and their leaders wholly of the Mahomedan religion, but all castes were allowed to associate with them. Remnants of former wars and the refuse of a disbanded soldiery, they constituted a nucleus, round which might assemble all that was vagabond and disaffected, all that was incapable of honest industry and peaceful occupation, and all that was opposed by habit and interest to the peace of Hindostan. Like the early Maharattas, they systematically carried on a war of plunder and devastation on all their neighbours, and in recent times were gradually obtaining the substantiality of organized states, their progress being assisted by the daily augmenting weakness of the surrounding powers, and their inability to coerce their own dominions. Among themselves they lived in societies of one and two hundred, governed by the individual who had most influence. These inferior chiefs were called Mhooladar and Thokdar; the aggregate body Tull; detachments Cozauks; the main body Lubbur; and the principal leader Lubbrea. In 1814 the total of all these bands was estimated at 31,000 horse.

So formidable an assembly of predatory cavalry on the banks of the Nerbudda, ready to overspread the adjacent countries, could not be viewed without extreme horror, and it imposed the necessity of maintaining an unceasing watch along the whole frontier of the British dominions, which had been ravaged for two consecutive years, and at an expense nearly as great as would have been incurred to carry on operations of the most decisive nature. Under these circumstances, the British government considered itself called on to execute the most imperious duty of a sovereign, that of protecting its peaceful subjects from desolation, and prevent the repetition of atrocities similar to those that had been committed the preceding year in Guntoor. The obstacles were formidable, but the measures adopted by the Marquis of Hastings were equal to the exigence, and so vigorously followed up, that between the 16th October and conclusion of November 1817 the Pindaries had been expelled from all their old haunts in Malwa, and after numberless marches and counter-marches, surprises, routes, and flights, their leaders, with the exception of Cheetoo (eaten by a tiger), were either seized or surrendered to the mercy of the British government, and when tranquillity was restored had lands assigned them by the British government.

In 1818, after the Pindary war had been brought to a successful conclusion, an insurrection was organized in the south-western portion of Mal-

wa, under a boy impostor named Krishna, who for the occasion was made to personate the reigning and legitimate raja of Indore, Mulhar Row Holcar. The country chosen by the insurgents for their operations is the strongest and most inaccessible in this quarter of Malwa, consisting of a deep line of hills and jungles, which extend north and south from Pertaubghur, passing Rutlam within eight or ten miles, and stretching onwards by Petlawud, Boree, Baug, and Cooksee, to near the Nerbudda, and continuing west to an undefined distance, through the territories of Banswara, Doongurpoor, Koshalghur, Bareah, and Chota Odeypoor. From the country of Mewar to the north of Pertaubghur the insurgents could not look for support except from one or two predatory chiefs, but the tracts above enumerated teemed with the elements of insurrection, besides the Bheels, Moghies, and a number of Soondies, who had been driven into the jungles; and lastly numerous bodies of Arabs and Meckranies (from Meckran, in Persia) were scattered over the country. Those at Banswara had joined the impostor, a party were at Rutlam, another at Jaboosh, a third at Amjerah, while a force of 700 or 800, under Muzaffer, a Meckrany chief, were in possession of Cooksee, Chiculda, and Ally Mohun. The whole of these Arabs and Meckranies kept up a regular communication, and from interested motives felt a natural antipathy to the tranquillizing system, it being obviously incompatible with the duration of their ascendancy over the native states. The leaders of the revolters naturally calculated on assistance from the discontented mercenaries, who trusted for pay to chance and plunder; but their plots and combinations were completely frustrated by the energy and activity of the officers and troops employed against them. In their first movements the rebels were confined to the hills, next pursued among their fastnesses, then cut off from mutual succour by the intervention of detachments where least expected, and in the end totally routed and dispersed. The impostor escaped for the moment, but every one of his principal adherents were taken, and his cause utterly abandoned.

During these proceedings the contrast of past misery and the consciousness of present safety was felt by all, and the fervour of their gratitude to the British government was enhanced by the obviously disinterested character of its interference, so far as pecuniary profit is concerned. The grand result contemplated was the establishing and maintaining the peace of India, which object Sir John Malcolm personally explained to all ranks, to the head of a village as well as to the sovereign of a kingdom; to the leader of a gang of robbers as well as to the commander of an army. But the feelings that had been excited in all classes (not excepting the military), by their preying on each other until the means of subsistence, even to the strongest, were exhausted, could not be expected to last long; advantage was consequently taken of existing circumstances, and troops distributed in such a manner, that while they precluded the foreign mercenaries from tumult or violence, proved to them that any act of conciliation or liberality was not the offspring of fear or necessity.

The general result of these and other operations effected by Sir John Malcolm was the expulsion of nearly 4,000 Sindies and Meckranies, and 2,000 of Bapoo Sindia's Mewatties and Patans; the restoration to power and security of the rulers of the different petty states; the establishment of the just claims of Sindia, Holcar, and the Powar family, the extinction of their fictitious ones; and finally the restoration to their houses and homes of the peaceable and industrious classes—the whole accomplished without bloodshed. The discharged mercenaries were treated with kindness, and all the petty chieftains were warned that the retaining of them would be considered

tantamount to a declaration of hostility against the British Government. On the other hand the reform of the Grassia, Rajpoot, and Bheel freebooters, was not, when properly managed, so difficult a task as had been anticipated. Accustomed to oppression and contempt as these tribes had been whenever the government to which they owed allegiance was strong enough to despise them, they were gratified by the kindness and consideration shewn them by a power whose superior means of coercion were irresistible. Although reduced in some respects, their condition in others was raised, and they were particularly pleased during the negociation by the absence of all suspicion of meditated treachery, a mark of infamy that had hitherto attached to the most favoured of their race. To inspire them with some confidence in their own honesty, Sir John Malcolm employed the most notorious of these robbers near his person, and as guards over property and treasure, which duties they invariably fulfilled with care and fidelity.

There does not appear to be any dialect peculiar to this province, as in a specimen of the Lord's Prayer in what is called the Malwa language, the missionaries could trace twenty words as occurring in the Bengalese and Hindostany examples, while many of the remainder were found to be pure Sanscrit. In Bopaul Persian is generally taught, and at Oojein, Mundessor, and some other towns, reading and writing the Persian character is imparted by a few Mahomedan and Kaist teachers, but the knowledge communicated is very superficial. The Sanscrit is taught at Oojein by several who profess to be shastries or learned priests, and at Indore, Mundessor, and some other towns, there are also a few shastries; but the common language taught in the schools is the Rungkee, a mixed dialect of the Hindui.

For ascertaining the population of Malwa, Sir John Malcolm selected fourteen districts as containing a fair proportion of thinly and well inhabited tracts; their area occupied, 3,472 square miles. The inhabitants, by a tolerably accurate investigation, amounted to 342,297 persons, or ninety-eight to the square mile, and five to each house. The proportion of Mahomedans to Hindoos was as one to twenty-one. In 1819 the total gross revenue of central India amounted to about Rs. 2,36,99,186, but was expected, after five years of tranquillity, to reach to Rs. 2,98,76,803 in 1824; about which date the gross revenue of the British government in Malwa was expected to be 3,68,297 rupees.

The British resident at Indore exercises an extensive authority, having charge of all western Malwa, including the territories of Holcar, Ghuffoor Khan, Nemaur, the rajas of Dhar and Dewas, the petty chiefs of Ally Mohun, and others in the wild tract adjacent to Gujerat, and also of the rajas of Pertaubghur, Banswara, and Doongurpoor. He has also the conducting of all intercourse with the rajas of Sillanah, Rutlam, and other chiefs tributary to Sindia. Bhopaul has a distinct resident.—(*Sir J. Malcolm, Fullarton, Hunter, Rennell, Col. Blacker, Scott, the Marquis Wellesley, &c.*)

MALWAN (*or Soonderdroog*).—A town and fortified island in the province of Bejapore, thirty-three miles N.N.W. from Goa; lat. 15°53′ N., lon. 73° 47′ E. This fortress, with a certain extent of territory, was acquired in 1813 from the raja of Colapoor, and the fort of Vingorla from the ranny of Sawuntwarree; but the whole was of trifling extent, and originally occupied, to prevent them again becoming, what they had been from the earliest dawn of history, the rendezvous of piratical fleets. The streams here are navigable for small craft as far as the British territory extends, which are the only useful description of vessels, the prevailing winds not admitting of vessels sailing up and down the rivers.

Within this small territory the assessed lands are of two sorts, garden

and arable. The first produces generally all the fruits of the country, but only the coco-nut and betel-nut are regularly taxed, yet a collection is also made from others. The best coco-nut trees yield about 125 nuts annually; the second about fifty; and the third from fifteen to twenty nuts. The produce of the betel-nut trees is very uncertain; in some sections of country it yields three seers, and in others only one, which however may be tolerably well ascertained by mere inspection of the tree. The arable land is taxed according to its fitness for the wet or dry cultivation; the first yields a *moiety, the last a third* of the grain produced, to government. The more valuable productions, such as sugar-cane, saffron, and ginger, pay one-fourth, but the whole quantity is insignificant. The cultivation of hemp, for which the soil is well adapted, may be here carried on to any extent, and iron is procured and smelted by the inhabitants in considerable quantities. The ore is usually found in detached lumps, but sometimes in regular rocky strata.

In this, as in other Maharatta governments, the administration of justice appears always to have been a secondary consideration, and no regular system for its administration was ever established. While subject to that nation, it was customary for the complainant to repair to the principal person in the neighbourhood, who either listened to his story or dismissed him, according as the result promised to be lucrative or otherwise. Capital punishments appear to have been unknown, the most atrocious crimes admitting of pecuniary compensation, graduated by the means of the perpetrator. In 1820 the Malwan villages and town were incorporated with the Southern Concan district.—(*Dunlop, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

MAMPAVA.—A town on the west coast of Borneo, situated in lat. 21′ N., lon. 109° 10′ E. This is one of the best markets among the Eastern islands for opium, the consumption, including its dependencies, being equal to 500 chests per annum.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

MANAAR (*Gulf of*).—This gulf separates Ceylon from the Southern Carnatic. Although too shallow to admit vessels of a large size, the depth of water is sufficient for sloops, dhonies, and other small craft, which convey goods by this passage to and from the continent to Columbo, instead of taking the outward circuitous passage, and rounding the island by Dondra-head. The rocks and ridge of sand-banks named Adam's bridge, present a great obstruction, and vessels are frequently obliged to lighten at Manaar before they can pass. This is called the inner or Palk's passage, from a Dutchman of that name who first attempted it.

MANAAR ISLE.—An island in the gulf, eighteen miles long by two-and-half in breadth, partly covered with palmyra and coco-nut trees; but the greater proportion of the surface is a mere mound of sea-sand, with scarcely any drinkable water. The fort stands close to the strait, and fronts the Ceylon coast. Small boats ply between Ramisseram and Manaar, and government have also boats stationed for conveying over the letter bags between Ceylon and the continent. In 1803 Fort Manaar contained twenty-eight pieces of cannon, mostly unserviceable.

MANADO.—A Dutch settlement subordinate to Ternate, thus named, near the north-easternmost extremity of the island of Celebes; lat. 1° 25′ N., lon. 124° 45′ E. From this place the Dutch procure much gold in exchange for opium, piece-goods, iron and steel; it is also productive of rice. It was captured in 1810 by the Dover frigate.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

MANAMADURA. — A small village on the left bank of the river Vyar, in the Carnatic province, and district of Madura, where there is a large choultry, and bungalow adjoining for the

accommodation of European travellers, twenty-eight miles travelling distance S.E. from the city of Madura.

MANAPAR.—A town in the Carnatic province, forty-seven miles W.S.W. from Tanjore, formerly the residence of a tributary and refractory Poligar; lat. 10°35′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E.

MANAS RIVER.—This small river is only remarkable as forming the boundary of the British territories on the north-eastern extremity of Bengal. It separates the district of Bijnee, paying tribute to the prince of the gods (the deb raja of Bootan) from another section of country now subject to the lord of heaven (swerga deva), that is, the nominal prince of Assam; and the river continues from thence to be in general the boundary between the said lord of heaven and the more puissant merchants of Leadenhall-street until it joins the Brahmaputra at Jughigopa, a distance of about seventeen miles. Both parties, however, possess on each side of the river some portions of land that are not contested; others are keenly disputed by the adjacent landholders, without having as yet attracted the notice of the superior powers. In the dry season the Manas is navigable for boats of fifty or sixty maunds as far as Bijnee, where the raja resides, but there is very little commerce carried on by its channel.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MANASWARY ISLE.—A small island about five miles in circumference situated in the harbour of Dory, on the great island of Papua; lat. 0°54′ N., lon. 134° 40′ E. Here are many nutmeg trees growing wild, which produce nutmegs of the long species, but of inferior quality.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

MANASAROVARA LAKE (*manasa, divine, and sarovara, a great lake or pool.*)—A lake in Tibet, named by the inhabitants of the Undes and Chinese Tartars Choo Mapang. It is bounded on the south by the great Himalaya range; on the east by a prolongation of the Cailas ridge; and on the north and west by a very high land, under the forms of a table, a ravine, and a slope, all declining towards the lake. It appears to be of an oblong shape, having the east, west, and south sides nearly straight. That of the north (especially the north-east, where there is a plain at the base of the elevated land) indented, and irregularly tending to the east. The angles are not sharp, if they were, its figure would be nearly square. In length from east to west it may be estimated at fifteen miles, and in breadth from north to south about eleven miles; lat. 31° N., lon. 81° E.

The water, except when disturbed by the wind, is clear and well-tasted. No weeds are observed on the surface, but grass is thrown up from the bottom. The centre and the sides furthest from the spectator's eye reflect a green colour, and the whole has an impressive appearance, whether quiet or agitated. But it is seldom allowed to remain tranquil, as the sudden changes of temperature in this neighbourhood are attended with violent gusts of wind. The heat of the sun while near the meridian, and the cold emanating from the masses of snow on the surrounding mountains, maintain an incessant conflict in the atmosphere. It is not known at what season of the year this alpine basin contains the greatest body of water, but in the month of August it is probably at the driest, as when visited by Mr. Moorcroft in that month the water-courses from the mountains were without moisture. No appearance, however, indicated that the bed of the lake ever rose more than four feet higher than its existing level at the time he viewed it, which elevation would be quite insufficient to make it overflow its banks. The beach of the lake is mostly covered with fragments of stone rounded, and when of small size, thinned by the continued action of the waves; but in some parts there are masses of red and green granite, marble, and limestone, apparently

fallen from the face of the rock, which in many places is 300 feet in perpendicular height, and cut by water-courses which proceed from the table land in the vicinity of the lake. On the front of this high bank, at from ten to thirty yards from the ground, are houses of loose stones and wood, to appearance only accessible by ladders, yet inhabited, probably by religious devotees.

Wild geese are observed to quit the plains of India on the approach of the rainy season, during which Lake Manasarovara is covered with them; indeed, the Hindoos suppose that the whole tribe of geese, which is sacred to Brahma, retire to the holy lake when the rains draw nigh. The water's edge is at all times bordered by a line of wrack grass, mixed with the feathers and quills of the grey goose, which breed in vast numbers among the surrounding rocks, and here find food when Bengal is concealed by the inundation. Many aquatic eagles are also seen perched on the rocky crags, and various kinds of gulls skimming along the water. Clouds of large black gnats hover over the surface of the lake, and become a prey to a species of trout without scales, which in their turn are devoured by feathered foes. There are many water-courses, the streams of which fall into the water when the snows melt. The most important, named the Krishna, sweeps down a ravine between two high mountains of the Himalaya chain, and expands to a sheet of water as it approaches the lake; but Mr. Moorcroft considered it certain that Manasarovara sends out no river to the south, north, or west. His stay, however, was too short to admit of his making a complete circuit of it, but adverting to the difficulty of supposing the evaporation of the lake in so cold a climate, to be equivalent to the influx of water from the surrounding mountains during the season of thaw, it may still be conjectured, that although no river runs from it, nor any outlet appears at the level at which it was seen by Mr. Moorcroft, it may nevertheless have some drain for its superfluous waters when more swollen, and at each greatest elevation perhaps communicates with Lake Rawan (from whence the Sutuleje flows), conformably to the oral information received from native travellers.

Manasarovara is considered one of the most sacred of all the Hindoo places of pilgrimage, not merely on account of its remoteness, and the rugged dangers of the journey, but also from the necessity which compels the pilgrim to bring with him both money and provisions, which last he must frequently eat uncooked owing to the want of fuel. It has never been ascertained why the Chinese Tartars and inhabitants of the Undes call it Choo Mapang, but they consider it an act of religious duty to carry the ashes of their deceased relations to the lake, there to be mixed with its sacred waters. On different parts surrounding the lake are the huts of lamas and gylums (priests and monks), placed in romantic spots, and decorated with streamers of different coloured cloth and hair, flying from long poles fixed at the corners and on the roofs of the houses. Along the beach at low-water mark are scattered the bones of many yaks, or bushy tailed cattle: but there is no reason to believe that they are the relics of animals that have been sacrificed. It is more probable that they have either been suffocated in the snow, or starved to death during winter, as while the herbage lasts the Tartars and Jowarries feed their numerous flocks in the vicinity. The best shawl-wool comes from the neighbourhood of Ooprang Cote, near the lake, and according to native accounts the Chinese have a valuable gold-mine in that part of Tibet beyond the Cailas range north-east from Lake Manasarovara.—(*Moorcroft, Colebrooke, &c.*)

MANCAP ISLE (*or Pulo Mancap*).—A very small island in the Eastern seas situated at the extremity of a sandbank, which extends about six

leagues from the south-western extremity of Borneo; lat. 3° S., lon. 102° 57′ E. The tides between this islet and Suratoo run very strong, and it should not be approached too near by ships, on account of the irregularity of the soundings.

MANCOTE (*Mancata*).—A town in the province of Lahore, seventy-six miles north from Amritsir; lat. 32° 37′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E. This place stands on an eminence skirted by a river, and when visited by Mr. Foster in 1783 was tributary to the raja of Jamboe, but has since devolved to the Seiks.

MANDARIN'S CAMP.—A station in Northern Hindostan, dominions of Nepaul, situated on the east side of the Cali river; lat. 30° 32′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E.; 14,500 feet above the level of the sea.

MANDAVIE.—The principal seaport and most populous town of the Cutch province, situated on the sea-coast about thirty-five miles S.S.W. from Bhooj, the capital; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 69° 33′ E. It possesses a tolerable harbour and is a place of considerable trade with Malabar, Sinde, Arabia, and Africa; being equalled in these respects by few marts in Hindostan, but it possesses no manufactures of importance. It is situated within gunshot of the beach, and is fortified in the Asiatic style and has gardens in the environs. In 1818, the annual revenue was estimated at two and a half lacks of rupees, and the population at 35,000 persons, principally Bhattias, Banyans and Brahmins; the remainder Lohannas, Mahomedans and various low castes. The son of Hans Raja, the chieftain of Mandavie who styled himself the dewan of Cutch, was taken under British protection in 1809.—(*Public MS. Documents, Macmurdo, &c.*)

MANDAWEE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, district of Surat, nineteen miles east from Surat; lat. 21° 15′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E. The Rajpoot raja of Mandawee possesses a tract of country about twenty-[illegible] miles long by fifteen broad, which [illegible] 1821 yielded a revenue of 180,0[illegible] rupees, out of which 60,000 was pai[d] as tribute to the British governmen[t]. His principal town contains abou[t] 2,000 houses, but much of the territory is covered with jungle, and thinl[y] peopled by predatory Bheels.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

MANDHAR.—A district in the island of Celebes, bounded on the west by the straits of Macassar, and on the east by a tract of desert mountains to which the inhabitants retire when attacked from the sea by enemies too powerful to resist in the field. The government of this small state was formerly vested in ten nobles, who were in subjection to the Macassars, before the latter were conquered by the Dutch. In 1824, the inhabitants possessed about 200 trading prows, in which besides being general carriers throughout the archipelago, they exported oil, rice and some coffee. The name (Mandhar) is celebrated in Hindoo mythology as that of the enormous mountain with which the demigods and demons churned the ocean to obtain the essence of immortality.

MANDODRI.—An ancient town, or rather the vestiges of one, in the province of Ajmeer, four miles north-east from Joudpoor. It is supposed to have been the capital of the Parchara dynasty. The few temples left by the Mahomedans are of Jain structure.—(*Tod, &c.*)

MANDOLY.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Gilolo group, situated between the first and second degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at twenty miles by four the average breadth.

MANDOW.—The ruins of an ancient town in the province of Malwa, sixty-five miles S.S.W. from Oojein; lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 75° 20′ E., 1,944 feet above the level of the sea. It was formerly the capital of the Dhar rajahs, subsequently of the Khilljee

Patan sovereigns of Malwa, one of whom, under the name of Urshung Shah, fixed here the seat of government about A.D. 1404. It submitted to Acber in person in 1561, when Malwa was annihilated as a separate kingdom, and in 1582 is described by Abul Fazel as a city of prodigious extent, twenty-two miles in circumference. In 1615, when visited by Sir Thomas Roe, it was greatly dilapidated, and its grandeur had disappeared.

This once celebrated city occupies the tabular summit of a mountain, one of the Vindhyan chain, separated by a vast chasm (resembling an artificial ditch of gigantic depth and dimensions) from the adjacent territory. During the rains this chasm is obstructed by water, and the approach to the town from the north (apparently the only one) is by a broad causeway, stretching across the bottom of the ravine, and then winding up the mural face of the rock. Three gateways, still entire, guard this passage: the first at the foot of the descent from the northern margin of the chasm; the second at the base of the opposite ascent, and the third at the summit. The luxuriance of the vegetation and the mass of ruins on the mountain of Mandow, and for miles around, have a general resemblance to the site of Gour, the ancient capital of Bengal; but Mandow has a dicided advantage in the scale of its edifices, and still more in the magnificence of its natural landscape. The walls of the town, by actual measurement, have been found to be twenty-eight miles in circumference, and the whole extent within the defences has been estimated at 12,654 English acres.

The style of the architecture here is mostly Afghan, as denoted by the small cupola and other prevailing peculiarities, but of an improved character as compared with the Afghan structures in Upper Hindostan. The most remarkable remains are the palace of Baz Bahauder, a very striking building placed on an eminence; the Jehaz-ka-Mahal, standing on a sort of isthmus between two spacious tanks; the Jumma Musjeid, by far the finest and largest specimen of the Afghan mosque to be seen in any part of India; the adjoining college, now nearly a heap of ruins; three other mosques; and the mausoleum of Hussein Shah, a massive structure composed entirely of white marble from the banks of the Nerbudda. The prevailing material in the buildings of Mandow is a calacreous fine red-stone. For more than an age prior to the military occupation of Malwa by the British forces, Mandow seems to have been abandoned to the tigers, and to such parties of Bheel robbers as occasionally sought shelter and concealment in its halls and fastnesses. The latter have been expelled, but so late as A.D. 1820 the only resident population consisted of a few Hindoo ascetics.—(*Fullarton*, *Malcolm*, *&c.*)

MANES.—A village of fifty houses in Northern Hindostan, situated on the right bank of the Spiti river, 11,900 feet above the level of the sea and 400 above the bed of the Spiti. The land in the neighbourhood bears crops of wheat, barley, and awa.

MANGAPETT.—A large village in the Hyderabad province, 120 miles N. by E. from Condapilly. This place is situated near the S.W. bank of the Godavery, in the Poloonsha raja's country, and is the head of a pergunnah of the same name. The mountains continue close down to the east side of the Godavery opposite to Mangapett, and their wild inhabitants sometimes extend their depredations to this side of the river. At this place there are some remarkable tombs, said to be the work of evil demons. Some have slabs of sandstone nearly twenty feet square, fixed on upright stones, and in the interior of the area there are sarcophagi under ground containing bones. These appear of very remote antiquity, and are surrounded by stone circles, from thirty to forty

feet in diameter. Such tombs are common all over Telingana, but their origin is uncertain.—(*Captain Blunt, Voysey, &c.*)

Mangalore (*Mangaloor*). — A flourishing seaport town in the province of Canara, situated on a salt lake, which is separated from the sea by a beach of sand. At high water, and in fine weather, ships of less than ten feet water can enter it; lat. 12° 53′ N., lon. 74° 57′ E. This town, named also Codeal Bunder, is large, and built round the sides of the peninsula, in the elevated centre of which the fort was placed, and the lake by which the promontary is formed is a beautiful piece of water. Ten miles further up the river is the small town of Arcola, also called Feringhy Pettah, having formerly been inhabited by Concan Christians, invited to reside there by the Ikeri rajas.

In Hyder's reign the principal merchants at Mangalore were Moplays and Concanies; but since the British acquired the government many men of property have come from Surat, Cutch, Bombay, and other places to the north. These persons are chiefly of the Vaisya caste; but there are also many Parsees, and the vessels employed in trade generally belong to other ports. Rice is the grand article of export, more than three-fourths of the whole being sent to Muscat in Arabia, Goa, Bombay, and Malabar. Next to rice as an export is betel-nut, then black pepper, sandal-wood, cassia and turmeric. Salt is made on this coast, but the quantity manufactured being inadequate to the supply a quantity is imported from Bombay and Goa. Raw silk for the use of the manufacturers above the ghauts, and sugar, are imported from Bengal and China, and oil and ghee from Surat.

Mangalore at a very early period was a great resort of Arabian vessels, the productions being peculiarly adapted to that country. It is mentioned by Sidi Ali in A.D. 1554 that the Portuguese also carried on an extensive commerce, and had a factory established here, which was destroyed in A.D. 1596 by the Muscat Arabs, then a considerable maritime power. In 1768 it was taken by a detachment from Bombay, but retaken by Hyder immediately afterwards, and the garrison made prisoners. In 1783 Mangalore again surrendered to a force from Bombay, and after the destruction of General Mathews and his army, sustained a long siege by Tippoo, during which the garrison, under Colonel Campbell, made a most gallant defence. The whole power of that prince, assisted by his French allies, could not force a breach that had long been open, and he was repulsed in every attempt to carry the place by storm. After the conclusion of the peace in 1784 it was given up to Tippoo, a mere heap of rubbish; what remained was wholly destroyed by him, having learned from experience how little his fortresses were calculated to resist European soldiers, and how great the difficulty to retake them when garrisoned by British soldiers. In 1806 the population of Mangalore was estimated at 30,000 inhabitants, and its prosperity has not since been interrupted by any calamity. Travelling distance from Seringapatam 162 miles, from Madras 440 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Bruce, Lord Valentia, A. H. Hamilton, &c.*)

Mangeedara.—A district in the most eastern quarter of Borneo, extending towards the Sooloo archipelago, in a long narrow point named Unsang. The first river in Mangeedara is named Tawoo, opposite to the island of Sebatie, to the eastward of which is a promontory named Birang, the adjacent country affording pasture for many cattle, near a river named the Pallas. The peninsula of Unsang terminates eastward in a bluff point, at the north-eastern extremity of which is a small island named Tambeesan, forming a harbour capable of admitting ships of a considerable size; the vicinity abounding with fine tim-

ber. On this coast there are many rivers, but they generally have bar-mouths where they join the sea.

Mangeedara produces birds'-nests, lacker-wood, and gold. The most remarkable place for the latter is Talapam in Gioong bay; but the river, where it is found, disembogues into the north sea between Tambeesan and Sandakan. The eastern part of Unsang abounds with wild elephants, and Mangeedara in general with a breed of cattle, originally left here by the Spaniards, who had a footing in the seventeenth century, which they afterwards relinquished by treaty to the Sooloos.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

MANGERAY (*Straits of*).—These straits separate the island of Floris or Endé from that of Comodo. In general the depth of water exceeds thirty fathoms. On the Floris side are many good harbours and bays, where vessels may anchor.—(*Bligh, &c.*)

MANGRODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Sallana, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.

MANICKPATAM.—A poor village in the province of Orissa, of not more than twenty huts, collected near a Mahomedan fane and mosque, with the remains of a wretched fort; lat. 19° 41′ N., lon. 85° 20′ E., sixty miles S. by W. from Cuttack. This place stands on the high northern bank of the channel, by which the Chilka lake communicates with the sea, where the ferry is near a mile across, and in one part deep.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MANICPOOR.—A town and small district in the province of Allahabad, but belonging to the king of Oude, being within the boundaries of his reserved dominions. The principal town is Manicpoor, which stands on the north-east side of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 46′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E., about eighty miles S.S.E. from Lucknow. The other towns of note are Mendigunge, Pertaubghur, and Saloon.

MANICYALA.—A village in the province of Lahore, district of the Guckers, but now pos[illegible]d by the Seiks, situated about s[illegible]enty-two miles east of the Indus; lat. 33° 28′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E. At this place there is a remarkable structure, which at first sight resembles a cupola on a low mound, but on examination is found to be solid. The height from the top of the mound to the top of the builiding is seventy feet, and the circumference about 150 paces. It is built of large pieces of hard stone common in the neighbourhood, mixed with smaller pieces of a sandy stone. The greater part of the outside is cased with the first-mentioned stone, cut quite smooth, but in some parts it has either fallen down or been left incomplete. The top is flat, and on it traces of the foundation of walls are discoverable, enclosing a space eleven paces long by five broad. In the appearance of this edifice there is nothing Hindoo, it approaching on the whole much nearer to the Grecian style of architecture. By the natives it is called the tope or mound of Manicyala, and is said to have been built by the gods. Mr. Erskine conjectures it to have been a dagop of the Buddhists, but from the description it appears much more to resemble a cemetry of the Guebres or fire-worshippers.—(*Elphinstone, Erskine, &c.*)

MANILLA.—A city in the island of Luzon, and capital of the Spanish settlements in the Philippines; lat. 14° 38′ N., lon. 120° 50′ E. This stands on the east coast of an extensive bay, which presents a singularly rich and picturesque scene. The country on the right hand slopes gradually down to the water's edge from a considerable height, and exhibits the appearance of being in a rich state of cultivation; but a nearer approach discovers it to be entirely the work of nature. On the left the high mountains stand more abrupt and detached, but are equally covered with verdure to the summits. Manilla lies in the south-east corner, in a low situation on the left bank of the river Passig, which discharges the waters of a lake

thirty miles inland, and is here about as wide as the Thames at Vauxhall, separating the city from the suburbs. This river is navigable for vessels not exceeding 250 tons for a short distance inland, but its rapid current has formed a bar at the entrance, over which there are only twelve feet of water at spring tides. Over this river there is a neat stone bridge of ten arches, and at the north-west angle is the citadel of Santiago, a clumsy, old-fashioned fortification. Vessels ride about a mile and a half from the shore in the roads; but during the S.W. monsoon, from the middle of April to November, they are forced to take shelter in Cavite, a small but secure port three leagues south of Manilla.

The length of the city within the walls is 1,360 Spanish yards from N.W. to S E., the width 774, and circumference 4,166 yards. The landface has a double wet ditch, and towards the sea there is a breastwork thrown up to prevent a landing. Within the walls are the public and religious buildings, of which the most remarkable is the cathedral. The houses are large, and on account of the frequent earthquakes solidly built, more especially on the ground floors; and the suburbs, which are extensive, also contain many handsome houses. In 1820 the population of the city and suburbs (the last of indefinite extent) was estimated at 175,000 souls of all denominations.

From its advantageous position with respect to India, China, and America, Manilla ought to be a city of the first commercial importance; but under the government of the Spaniards, trade has never been encouraged, or rather, until recently, was altogether repressed. In former times the goods imported were those adapted to form the cargo of the galleon, which usually consisted of one-third in various goods from Madras, such as punjums, longcloth, and printed calicoes; one-third muslins, baftaes, and sanees, from Bengal; and one-third in silks, grass cloths, silk stockings, and other Chinese commodities. The invoice, legally, ought never to have exceeded one million of dollars, but in general it amounted to double that sum. The tonnage of the galleon was divided into boletas (about one ton) and fractions of boletas, almost every individual in Manilla having an interest in the vessel; for each householder, according to his rank, civil or military, had a share which was continued to his wife and children. The consequence was, that a merchant who wanted fifty tons, had to apply to above 200 families, and make his bargain with each. The value of the boleta was of course regulated by the demand, but it usually averaged from 200 to 250 dollars. The time of sailing was May or early in June; the commander was an officer of rank, and had a privilege of fifty tons. The king paid all the ship's expenses, for which he levied thirty-three per cent. duty on the valuation of the cargo at Accipulco.

The chief articles of export from Manilla are cordage, resinous substances, pitch and tar, cloths, rushes, rattans, indigo of an excellent quality, rice, and cotton, which last, if sufficiently cultivated, might prove a valuable article of export to China, from whence four or five junks of about 400 tons each arrive annually. The sugar-cane thrives well, but little of the juice is manufactured, and the woods abound with a species of bastard cinnamon. The tobacco is good and makes excellent cigars, which are smoked all day by the ladies of Manilla. The cocoa of the island is considered superior to that of America, and the tree is much cultivated on account of the quantity consumed by the Spaniards. Neither tobacco nor cocoa are indigenous to the Philippines, having been introduced by the Spaniards. Wax is collected in considerable quantities, and gold is filtered from the rivulets by the Indians, who sometimes procure fifteen-pence worth per day. Native iron is found in masses, and there are considerable quarries of

marble, from whence it is procured to decorate the churches.

Prior to the Spanish invasion Manilla existed as an Indian, or more probably Malay town. In 1571 Miguel Lopez de Legaspi, the Spanish commander in the Philippines, sailed in person to the island of Luzon, and entering the river with his squadron, took possession of Manilla, which he constituted the capital of the Spanish possessions in the Philippines. In 1762 it was captured by the British, and suffered much from the Indians who had joined them. In 1820 the Indians rose in a large body and massacred all the foreigners they could lay their hands on, and also many Chinese. It is said their superstitious fears had been excited by the sight of a large collection of dried insects, serpents, and other animals, preserved by the French naturalists, and as they thought, intended to poison the wells and rivers, and the real origin of the cholera morbus which then raged with such violence. —(*Singapore Chronicle, Blackwood's Magazine, Sonnerat, Zuniga, La Peyrouse, &c.*)

MANIMAJRA.—A large town and fort in the Lahore province, belonging to the protected Seiks, situated at the entrance of the Pinjir valley, 3,910 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 30° 43′ N., lon. 76° 49′ E.—(*Hodgson Herbert, &c.*)

MANIPA.—A small island in the Eastern seas, twenty miles in circumference, lying off the western end of Ceram; lat. 3° 21′ N., lon. 127° 51′ E. Viewed from the sea it has a mountainous appearance, but it is inhabited and cultivated.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

MANJAULY.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, fifty-nine miles N.W. from Chuprah; lat. 26° 17′ N., lon. 84° E.

MANJERA RIVER.—This river has its source about fifty miles S.E. from the city of Ahmednuggur, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction until it arrives within thirty-two miles of Hyderabad, where, making an uncommonly sharp bend, it turns due north until its joins the Godavery, after a winding course of 400 miles, no where navigable.

MANJEE.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, situated at the confluence of the Ganges and Goggra, forty-four miles N.W. from Patna; lat. 25° 49′ N., lon. 84° 35′ E. There is a custom-house established here, where boats ascending or descending undergo an examination. On the Ganges, two miles from thence, is a remarkable banyan or burr tree: diameter, from 363 to 375 feet; circumference of the shadow at noon, 1,116; circumference of the several stems, fifty or sixty in number, 921 feet. Such were its dimensions in 1800; but when visited by Mr. Fullarton in 1819 it appeared to cover a still greater space, and the stems were much more numerous. Some of the older, however, had decayed, so that the continuity was occasionally interrupted, and some parts quite insulated from the rest. With the exception of the Kubeer Butt, on the Nerbudda (if that still exists), this is probably the most magnificent specimen of the vegetable creation to be found in the world. A naked Sanyassy (religious mendicant) formerly sat under this tree, who had occupied the station twenty-five years; but he did not continue always fixed to the spot, as his vow obliged him to lie, during the four cold months, up to the neck in the Ganges.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MANKIAM ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about thirty miles in circumference, situated off the west coast of Gilolo; lat. 0° 20′ S., lon. 127° 30′ E.

MANOWLY.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the west bank of the Malpurba river, thirty miles N. by E. from Darwar; lat. 15° 58′ N., lon. 75° 17′ E. This place originally belonged to Neel Khant Row Sindia and his ancestors,

which family was dispossessed about fifty years ago by the Colapoor raja, who was soon afterwards expelled by the Peshwa. Purseram Bhow then held the country until the decline of his power, when it again fell into the hands of the Colapoor raja. Some time afterwards Doondeah Whangh's (a freebooter) partizans obtained possession: but it was rescued from them by the Duke of Wellington, who gave it to Appah Saheb, Purseram Bhow's eldest son. With him it remained a year, when Appah Dessye came with some troops of Dowlet Row Sindia's, and turned him out; and lastly came the British government, in 1818, and turned them all out.—(*MSS. &c.*)

MANWAS.—A small, sterile, and thinly-peopled tract of country in the province of Gundwana, confining on Boghela and the raja Chohans. The town or village of Manwas stands in lat. 24° 12′ N., lon. 82° E., fifty-one miles S.E. from Rewah.

MARANG.—A town in Northern Hindostan, surrounded by lofty mountains. Although 8,500 feet above the level of the sea, it enjoys a mild climate, the temperature in July varying from fifty-eight to eighty-two degrees Fahrenheit. The rain never falls heavy here, the height of the outer chain of the Himalaya being sufficient to exclude the solstitial rains that deluge Hindostan.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

MARAWA (*Maravasa*).—A subdivision of the Madura collectorate in the Carnatic, bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, and on the south by Tinnevelly. Although the name is now principally confined to the sea-coast, yet the tribe to which it owes its derivation is scattered over the adjacent districts inland to the hills of Travancore and Dindigul. This territory possesses considerable advantages from its maritime situation, from the progressive increase of its external commerce, and the permanent establishment of a large public investment of cloth, which employs its manufactures and maintains a considerable circulating capital. The southern division is remarkably well supplied with water from tanks, where it is kept above the general level of the country. Near the sea-coast the country is in general well cultivated, with the exception of a wild tract of low rock intermixed with brushwood, which lies to the west of Ramnad, and extends to the point of land opposite to Ramisseram.

The native Marawas are not remarkable for the neatness or comfort of their dwellings, unless it be in some of the larger towns, their houses being ill-built, little raised from the surface, and badly thatched. Coarse blankets, which are a common article of clothing, are here scarcely known, and truckle-beds or posts are rare, so that a bleak and moist season is very destructive to the poor, whose meagre and haggard looks indicate a predisposition to epidemics. The caste of Coilleries (Calaris), or robbers, who formerly exercised their profession as a birthright, are found in this and the neighbouring tracts. They never considered their calling in any way disreputable, it having legitimately descended to them as an inheritance from their ancestors. So far, therefore, from being averse to the appellation, a Coillery, if asked, will immediately answer that he is a robber by birth, parentage, and education; but that the practical exercise of his avocation is now much curtailed by the strictness of the British police. In this territory there is a caste of Totiyars in which brothers, uncles, nephews, and other kindred have their wives in common.

Like the rest of the Southern Carnatic, Marawa exhibits many remains of ancient Hindoo religious magnificence, consisting of temples, built with large massive stones. At small distances on the public roads are choultries and pagodas, in the front of which are gigantic figures of richly ornamented horses, formed of cast pottery, and shaded with fruit and lofty banyan trees. At a remote

period of Brahminical antiquity this tract was a portion of the great Pandian empire; but in modern times came into the possession of the rajas of Shevagunga and Ramnad, the first of whom was called the Little Marawa, and the second the Great Marawa, both occasionally tributary to the nabobs of the Carnatic, and always refractory. The Madras presidency collected the tribute of the two Marawas from the year 1792; and in 1801, by treaty with the nabob of Arcot, obtained the complete sovereignty.—(*Medical Reports, Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Fifth Report, &c.*)

MARATUBA ISLES.—A cluster of six islands in the Eastern seas, lying off the east coast of Borneo; lat. 2° 15 N., lon. 118° 35′ E. The largest has some wells of fresh water made by the Sooloos, who go there to collect sea-slug or biche de mar.

MARICKPOOR.—A town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, forty miles S.E. from the town of Cuttack. The extreme dimensions of the zemindary attached to this town is reckoned nine miles from north to south, and six from east to west. The produce consists of rice, salt, cotton, and sugar-cane. The tribute paid in 1814 to government was 3,120 rupees, and the zemindar's estimated profit 29,000 rupees, of which 4,000 were derived from salt. —(*Richardson, &c.*)

MARJAOW (*Medijay*).—A town in the province of Canara, fifteen miles north from Onore; lat 14° 28′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E. Dr. Robertson, the historian, thinks this is the Musiris of the ancients, from whence they exported a variety of silk stuffs, rich perfumes, tortoise-shell, different kinds of transparent gems, especially diamonds and large quantities of pepper. Except the latter, none of the articles above numerated, are now produced in the countries immediately contiguous to Marjaow.

MARKERRY.—See MERCARA.

MAROOTS (*or Maruts*). — S[illegible] BORNEO.

MARONDA.—A town in the pr[illegible]vince of Ajmeer, twenty miles nort[illegible] east from the city of that nam[illegible] lat. 26° 41′ N., lon. 74° 40′ E.

MAROS.—A Dutch settlement [illegible] the island of Celebes, the chief [illegible] those to the north of Macassar, [illegible] Fort Rotterdam; lat. 4° 51′ S., lo[illegible] 119° 35′ E.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

MAROWRA.—A town in the pr[illegible]vince of Allahabad, twenty-five mil[illegible] south from Teary; lat. 24° 23′ N[illegible] lon. 78° 49′ E.

MA[illegible].—This province is com[illegible]prehende[illegible] tween 17°30′ and 15°3[illegible] N. It is [illegible]unded on the east by t[illegible] Siamese [illegible]ntains; on the south [illegible] is sep[illegible] from Ye by a sm[illegible] stream; and on the west it has t[illegible] sea. The northern boundary of t[illegible] Burmese portion is uncertain; t[illegible] British portion is terminated on t[illegible] north by the Martaban or Salu[illegible] river, about lat. 16° 30′ N. T[illegible] whole contains about 12,000 miles, [illegible] which about one-half (the mo[illegible] fertile and populous) belong to t[illegible] British; but the town of Martab[illegible] stands on the north or Burmese si[illegible] of the Saluen.

Three large rivers, the Saluen, t[illegible] Gain, and the Athran, join opposi[illegible] to Martaban, where they form [illegible] expanse of water six or seven mil[illegible] broad. Inland they diverge, and [illegible] navigable for native craft to an u[illegible] known distance up the count[illegible] Lieut. Low ascended six days' jo[illegible] ney above the town of Martab[illegible] There are many other streams, t[illegible] province generally being well suppli[illegible] with moisture, and during the mo[illegible] soon every insignificant rivulet [illegible] swollen to a torrent. The climate [illegible] healthy, and the heat not so inten[illegible] as in Hindostan. The military [illegible] tachment preserved its health. T[illegible] periodical rains, seasons, and tim[illegible] of harvest, are nearly the same as [illegible] Bengal.

Nine-tenths of the surface [illegible] continue covered with forest [illegible]

jungle. The soil and climate are well adapted for the rice cultivation, more especially the large island of Pooloong, at the mouth of the Martaban river, fifteen miles long by five broad. With an adequate population every tropical production might be raised in redundance, and a large migration of Burmese, Peguers, Siamese, and Chinese may be expected, tending in fact to the depopulation of the three first-mentioned countries. At present the staple produce is rice, the remainder, cotton, indigo, pepper, cardamoms, teak, blachang, tobacco, elephants' teeth, betel-nut, salt, various dye and cabinet woods, and timber; all hitherto procured in very small quantities. The plough is not used, the ground, to prepare it for the seed, being merely trampled by buffaloes.

Internal oppression and Siamese devastation having reduced almost the whole province to a state of nature, the inhabitants on the arrival of the British were found mostly congregated about the capital, which until the foundation of Amherst, was the only collection of houses that deserved the name of town. In the Burmese portion the sites of towns, villages, temples, and Buddhist monasteries may still be traced. In 1825 the total population of the province was estimated at 45,000 persons, of which number probably 25,000 belong to the British division. The religion is Buddhism, without any subdivision into castes, and few prejudices as to food; the laws and customs Burmese.

There are several practicable passes into Siam, but only one adapted for the passage of an army. The Burmese invasions of Siam have always been made by the Athran river, and the Siamese incursions into Martaban by the same route. By the course of the Saluen river all Pegu, and a considerable portion of Upper Ava, are assailable. It is supposed a caravan from the Shan country crosses some part of British Martaban on its road to Rangoon, which in process of time may be induced to direct its course to Moulmein or Amherst.—(*Crawfurd, Lieut. Low, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

MARTABAN.—This place is situated in lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 97° 30′ E., about twenty-eight miles N.N.E. above Amherst town. Three rivers, the Saluen, the Gain, and the Athran, unite here, and proceed to the sea by two distinct channels. Their confluence forms an expanse of water six or seven miles broad, interspersed with many islands. The Saluen, which is the largest, is navigable for native craft a great way inland, and is connected with Rangoon and Lower Pegu through the Sitang and Pegu rivers, by a creek navigable during the rains, and thence all the way to Bassein. The Gain and the Athran are also considerable rivers, and said to be navigable for small boats and canoes into Lao and other remote provinces. The navigation from the sea up to Martaban is intricate, and not practicable for vessels drawing more than ten feet water.

In April 1826 the town of Martaban contained, by estimate, about 9,000 inhabitants, mostly Peguers; the remainder Burmese, Chinese, and Mahomedans, all of whom Mr. Crawfurd found preparing to pass over the river to the British territory. It was captured by the British in November 1824; but by the provisions of the treaty of 1826, relinquishing the north bank of the Saluen, is to be restored to the Burmese.—(*Crawfurd, Lieut. Low, Capt. Fenwick, &c.*)

MARWAR (*Marawa*).—A large and ancient division of the Ajmeer province, situated principally between the twenty-sixth and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude, but in modern times better known as the raja of Joudpoor's territories. In former times the word Marwar, as including the town and fortress of Ajmeer, became almost synonymous with the name of the province. The word Marawa signifies any dry desert soil,

possibly from maru, desert, and sthali, dry land, a region where one dies.

The table-land or plateau of Marwar (if so irregularly mountainous a country deserve such an appellation) rises towards the south, the Marwar range being probably 1,000 feet above Mewar, and some of the mountainous peaks 2,000 feet above that plain and the valley of the Nerbudda. The most elevated of the *Aboo mountains*, as indicated by the barometer, has been estimated at 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, the summit producing European fruits and shrubs. This division of Rajpootana has been possessed by the Rhatore tribe for many ages, and contains many forts and strong-holds, now mostly subject to Joudpoor. On investigation the missionaries found that the Lord's Prayer in the Marwar language contained twenty-eight of the thirty-two words particularized in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

Besides the regular Hindoo and Mahomedan population this district is partly occupied by savage and predatory races, who frequently require the active interference of the British troops stationed at Nusseerabad. One of these, the Mhairs (a race resembling the Bheels), inhabit the Marwar hills named Mhairwara, and have given much trouble both to their neighbours and to the British functionaries in Rajpootana. Their religion does not yet seem clearly ascertained, but the Brahminical and Mussulman influence is probably by this time diffused among them. In 1820 it became necessary to march a detachment against them, which captured Halloon, their principal fortress, and routed them from many of their strong-holds. Another turbulent and thievish race are the Meenas, but in what they differ from Mhairs, and from low-caste Hindoos and Mahomedans, Bheels, Gonds, Coolies, Catties, and other wild and predatory hill races, has never been properly investigated. In 1819 they also were driven out of their fortresses, and the whole country scoured until they submitted to the amicable arrangements dictated by the British government. It is certainly desirable to ascertain what peculiar circumstances have led to the superior barbarity of the Mhairs and Meenas scattered over the hilly country of Sarowy, Joudpoor, and Jeypoor: but it is likely they were as much sinned against by the neighbouring powers as they themselves sinned; for on British protection being notified to them in 1821, many Bheels and Meenas left their haunts among the hills and settled in their former villages, and disciplined corps of these robbers were established to enforce honesty among their neighbours.

In 1811 the annual fall of rain, never abundant, failed in Marwar, which, in addition to the desolation caused by clouds of locusts, drove the inhabitants of that unfortunate country for subsistence into the centre of Gujerat. Misery still pursued them, for in 1812 Gujerat also experienced a failure of rain, and consequent scarcity, which soon reduced the already half-starved emigrants to a most deplorable condition; yet they most unaccountably declined employment when tendered, even with the prospect of death as the consequence of their refusal. The vicinity of every large town in Gujerat was then crowded with these wretched creatures, infirm, dying, dead, and half eaten by dogs, who acquired an unnatural degree of ferocity from having so long fed on human bodies. Even the distinction of caste was at length forgotten, and the Brahmin was seen selling his wife for two or three rupees to such as would receive her; at Baroda, the Guicowar's capital, the weekly return of Marwarie burials exceeded 500 bodies. Much was done by native charity; large subscriptions were raised, aided by a liberal sum from the Baroda government: but all unavailing, the extent of the calamity exceeded the human power of efficient alleviation. In the mean time the unfortunate emigrants spread themselves over the Gujerat province from the gulph of Cutch to

Surat, and in many instances to Bombay; and there is reason to believe that of the whole mass not one in an hundred ever returned within the limits of his native province.—(*Public MS. Documents, Major Carnac, &c.*)

Masbate Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, lying due south of the island of Luzon or Luçonia, and on the route of the galleon which formerly sailed between Acapulco and Manilla. In length it may be estimated at sixty miles, by seventeen the average breadth.

Mascally Isle (*fish creek isle.*)—An island in the province of Bengal, lying off the Chittagong district, from which it is separated by a very narrow creek. In length it may be estimated at fifteen miles, by ten the average breadth. It is situated at the mouth of the Joareah, which is but a small stream, but is rendered of importance by the tide entering through it into a channel called Patili, which communicates with the Ramoo river. Prior to 1803 many Mugh refugees from Arracan, unable to bear the tyranny of the Burmese, retired here. It is notwithstanding thinly peopled, and scantily cultivated; but it yields two European luxuries, sea-turtle and oysters, of an excellent quality.

Masood.—A town in the province of Gundwana, fifty miles W. by S. from Nagpoor; lat. 21° N., lon. 78° 30′ E.

Masulipatam.—The fourth district into which the Northern Circars have been subdivided for the collection of the revenue and the administration of justice. To the north it is bounded by Rajamundry; on the south by Guntoor and the sea; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the dominions of his highness the Nizam. Its present limits comprehend a large proportion of the ancient circars of Ellore and Condapilly, under which heads respectively further topographical details will be found. The principal towns are Masulipatam, Ellore, and Sicacollum.

In 1813 this district was much disturbed by the incursions of proscribed or rebellious zemindars, subjects of the British government, who had taken refuge in the Nizam's territories, where they were protected by the zemindar of Poloonshah, who shared their profits. The difficulty of protecting so exposed a frontier was then experienced, as the employment of regular troops was but a temporary resource, and had only the effect of securing the inhabitants during the time they remained on the spot. The inland parts of this district have not the same aspect of cultivation as the neighbouring district of Guntoor, there being extensive tracts of grass plain, and towards the north of wild copse jungle; the black soil is also much less prevalent. The cotton produced in this district is comparatively of a good quality, but it is not raised to any great extent, its culture being less profitable than that of grain. With proper encouragement, however, it might be produced in large quantities, many extensive tracts being peculiarly adapted for its cultivation. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in the Masulipatam district amounted to 3,86,043 star pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras presidency, the total population amounted to 4,54,754 persons.

In A.D. 1820 the claims of Rustum Jah, calling himself nabob of Masulipatam, to certain honours and pensions were investigated, when it was found he had no just pretensions to either. His father, Hussein Ali Khan, had been killadar of Ellore under the Nizam, and also managed a portion of the country; but he was merely a common functionary, and never had done any services to entitle him to the notice or gratitude of the British government. On this occasion Sir Thomas Munro recorded his opinion against subdividing pensions among surviving descendants until

they became almost evanescent quantities, and so frittered away as to be below the wages of a common labourer, the consequence of which was, that all the impression made by such original grant was lost to the British nation.—(*Sir T. Munro, J. Tod, Fullarton, Hodgson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Masulipatam (*Mausali-patan*).—The capital of the preceding district, and a seaport of considerable note; lat. 16° 10′ N., lon. 81° 14′ E. The fort of Masulipatam is of an oblong square figure, 800 yards by 600, situated in the midst of a salt morass, close to an inlet or canal, which opening a communication with the sea and the Krishna, enlarges the means of defence, without exposing the works to an immediate naval attack, as no ship can come within reach of cannon shot, nor any approaches be made on the land side except between the north and east points of the compass. The pettah or town of Masulipatam is situated a mile and a half to the north-west of the fort, on a spot of ground rising above the fort, across which the communication between this ground and the fort is by a straight causeway 2,000 yards in length. The town is very extensive, and its site on the further side is bounded by another morass, both of which are miry even in the driest season. Such was the description of this fortress during the Carnatic wars of the eighteenth century; but since then many alterations and improvements have taken place. In 1812 Sir Samuel Auchmuty considered it the only defensible post in the Northern Circars; but, while its works were just sufficiently strong to invite, they were too weak to resist for any length of time the attack of a European enemy. Under all circumstances, as they then existed, he was inclined to think that the best plan would be to demolish the whole, and take up a new fortified position at Ellore, or some other strong point in the interior.

The shore at Masulipatam is still, and it is the only port from Cape Comorin on which the sea does not beat with a strong surf, and capable of receiving vessels of 300 tons burthen. It became early a port of commercial resort, and still carries on an extensive commerce; but notwithstanding the fertility of the adjacent country, watered by numerous small rivers and channels from the Krishna and Godavery, large quantities of rice are annually imported. Masulipatam has long been famous for chintzes; but they are neither so handsome nor of so good a quality in proportion to their price, as those of Europe. They are notwithstanding an article of very general wear all over Persia, and there is in consequence a considerable trade carried on between that country and this port.

Masulipatam is mentioned by Marco Polo in A.D. 1295, and was conquered by the Bhamenee sovereigns of the Deccan so early as A.D. 1480. In 1769 the French established a factory here, and in 1761 received possession of the town and fort, when they improved it and modernized the defences. It was taken from them by storm in 1759 by the British troops under the command of Colonel Forde, when the garrison that surrendered amounted to 500 Europeans and 2,537 sepoys and topasses, being considerably more numerous than the assailants. After this event the town and adjacent territory were ceded to the British, with whom they have ever since remained. Travelling distance from Calcutta 764 miles; from Delhi 1,084; from Madras 292; and from Hyderabad 203 miles.—(*Orme, J. Grant, Parliamentary Reports, Auchmuty, &c.*)

Maswey.—A town in the province of Oude, forty-three miles N. by W. from the city of Lucknow; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

Mataram.—A city in Java, once the capital of an empire which was predominant in that island from the end of the fifteenth century until the foundation of Batavia in A.D. 1619. Towards the conclusion of the six-

teenth century the seat of government and the susuhunun, or sultan of Mataram, were removed to Cartasura, now in ruins. In A.D. 1586 the senapati or general, first prince of the house of Mataram, destroyed Pajang.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

MATEO.—A village in British Martaban, situated above the cantonments at Moulmein. At this place the tide has a rise of ten feet, and continues to flow for twenty miles higher up: vessels can arrive at this place from Moulmein in three tides.

MATHUPOOR.—A walled village belonging to Holcar, in the province of Malwa, division of Mandow, situated on the confines between the jungle that skirts the Vindhya mountains and the cultivated banks of the Nerbudda, three miles and a half N.W. from Mheyshur.

MATHURA.—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Jumna, and mentioned by the ancient Greek geographers; lat. 27° 31′ N., lon. 77° 33′ E., thirty miles N.N.W. from Agra. It acquired much celebrity in the tales of Hindoo mythology, as having been, with Bindrabund, the scene of the birth and early adventures of their favourite deity Krishna; and on the Mahomedan invasion became one of the first objects of their attention, having been taken and destroyed by Mahmood of Ghizni so early as A.D. 1018. It was subsequently rebuilt, and ornamented with several rich temples, the most magnificent of which was erected by Raja Beer Singh Deo, of Oorcha, and cost thirty-six lacks of rupees. This edifice was afterwards razed by Aurengzebe, who erected a mosque with the materials on the spot. In the fort are still to be seen the remains of an observatory, built by Raja Jeysingh of Jeypoor or Jyenagur.

Mathura continued subject to the Mogul government until its dissolution, after which it experienced many misfortunes, especially in 1756, when Ahmed Shah Abdalli inflicted a general massacre on its inhabitants. Towards the conclusion of the eighteenth century, it came into the possession of the Sindia family, who conferred it on their commander-in-chief, General Perron. This officer made it his head-quarters, strengthened the defences, and established here his principal cannon foundry; it was, however, taken by the British without resistance in 1803. On this occasion the British general not only protected the persons and respected the worship of the inhabitants, but also ordered his own army, while encamped within the precincts of the town, to abstain from the slaughtering of cattle, as their doing so would be deemed a sacrilege by the Hindoos. Since that period it has continued subject to the British government, and has been the head-quarters of a brigade, whose cantonments are to the south of the city.

Mathura, and Bindrabund in its vicinity, still continue the resort of Hindoo votaries, but they exhibit no remains of architectural magnificence to be compared in magnitude with those of the Carnatic. Several of the pagodas, however, surpass those of the Carnatic in elegance, and the arches and marble galleries adjoining the ghauts at Mathura are striking and curious. Besides the mosque above-mentioned there is another and larger edifice of the same description in the centre of the city, ascribed to Abdulla Nubbee Khan, which has been highly decorated with enamelled tiles, but is now in a deplorable state of decay. In the centre of the town is a beautiful temple, or dwelling-house, or both conjoined, built by Gocul Paruk, treasurer to the late Dowlet Row Sindia, and chief partner in a great banking-house here. The cantonments are separated from the town by an interval of broken ground covered with ruins. The buildings are very extensive, and scattered over the plain, but the greater part unoccupied; the troops have been much reduced in number in consequence of the establishment of Nusseerabad and Neemutch as ad-

vanced posts, and the consequent removal of the brigades much further to the westward. Mathura, however, is still an important station, on account of its vicinity to so many wild, independent, and turbulent rajas, not yet sobered down to their proper degree of temperature.

There are a multitude of sacred monkeys of a large breed fed at Bindrabund, and maintained by a stipend bestowed by Madhajee Sindia. One of them, in 1783, which was lame from an accidental hurt, in consequence of his resemblance to their patron, who had been lamed by a wound at the battle of Paniput, was treated with additional respect. In 1808 two young cavalry officers inadvertently shot at them, and were immediately attacked by the priests and devotees, and compelled to attempt the passage of the Jumna on their elephant, in doing which they both perished. Besides monkeys Mathura swarms with paroquets, peacocks, and Brahminy bulls. The fish in this river, which winds along the borders of Mathura, are equally protected by the Hindoo faith, and are frequently seen to rise to the surface as if in expectation of being fed. —(*Fullarton, Bishop Heber, Malcolm, Scott, Capt. Turner, Kyd, &c.*)

Matura (*Mathura*). — A town and small fort near the southern extremity of Ceylon; lat. 5° 58′ N., lon. 80° 31′ E., eighty-two miles S.E. from Columbo. The fort stands on the west side of the Neel Ganga, or blue river; the town extends its banks towards the sea. Gems abound in the Matura district, where they are found by the natives in alluvial ground. The native rock of the sapphire, the ruby, the cat's-eye, and the different varieties of zircon is gneiss. These gems, but not of the first quality, and also the cinnamon-stone, occur imbedded in the gneiss rock. The Matura district has declined in importance since it came into the possession of the British, the catching of elephants and the mining of cinnamon having been abandoned as unprofitable. In 1813 451 elephants were taken and destroyed here.—(*Davy, Cordiner, Percival, &c.*)

Maturatta.—A military post in Ceylon, lying S.S.E. from Candy, 2,700 feet above the level of the sea. The mean annual temperature of the elevated region in which Maturatta stands is probably not above 68°, and from the nature of the soil and climate no part of the island appears better adapted for the establishment of a permanent European colony. The whole tract is government property, and destitute of inhabitants, the road having been interdicted during the late king's reign. All sorts of European grains and fruits would probably succeed, and grapes are already known to thrive particularly well.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Matwar.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighty-five miles E.N.E. from Broach; lat. 22° 4′ N., lon. 74° 32′ E.

Maulpoor.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fifty-six miles N.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 21′ N., lon. 73° 44′ E.

Maundvee.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, thirteen miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 18° 47′ N., lon. 73° 1′ E.

Maundwa.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the right bank of the Nerbudda. In 1820 it contained 1,000 houses, principally inhabited by Brahmins. A considerable trade is carried on here in timber, which is floated down the river to the sea-coast.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Maunkaira.—A strong fortress in the province of Lahore, in 1800 possessed by the Afghans, and situated in the most desert part of the Leia district, eighty miles north from the city of Moolan; lat. 31° 21′ N., lon. 71° 15′ E.

Maunkaiseer.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, seventy-four miles S.E. from Ahmednuggur; lat. 18° [illegible] lon. 75° 43′ E.

Maunpoor.—A town in the province of Agra, belonging to Jeypoor, fifty-five miles S.W. from Bhurtpoor; lat. 26° 59′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E. This is a small town on a plain, surrounded by a mud wall, with eight semicircular bastions and a ditch, all going fast to decay. The tops of the hills in this neighbourhood are thickly studded with castles, some of considerable size; several may be passed in one day's march. In the vicinity is a plain, traversed by a river called the Maungunga, which, from the width of the bed, must during the rains be a considerable stream, but in the cold months it is quite dry. The rocks, when visible through the sand and withered herbage, are of granite. The animals here seem to act as if man was not their enemy: partridges run among the feet of the traveller's horse, deer lift their heads to look at the cavalcade and stoop to graze again, peacocks walk about as tamely as in a farm-yard.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Maunpoorah.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Ludhona, from which town it is distant six miles; lat. 22° 53′ N., lon. 75° 22′ E. In 1820 it contained 300 houses, and belonged to the raja of Seetamow.

Maunsa.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-nine miles north from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 26′ N., lon. 72° 43′ E.

Maweldurao.—A small and poor village in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, and thirty-five miles N. from the town of that name. In the vicinity is a small bungalow for the reception of travellers, situated near the sea, in a sandy country full of wild palmyra trees.

Maydougaghaut.—A town in the northern Circars, twenty-one miles north from Condapilly; lat. 16° 54′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E.

Mayee.—A town in the province of Gujerat, principality of Lunawara, from which town it is distant about sixteen miles south.

Maytral.—A large village in the province of Gujerat, about thirteen miles S.E. from Lunawara. In 18[illegible] it was held by the Soonth and Godra Bheels, tributary to Lunawara.

Mazagong (*Mahesa-grama*).—A Portuguese village on the island of Bombay, where there is a good dock for small ships, and also two tolerably handsome Roman Catholic churches. The mangoes produced here are so famous for their excellence, that they were formerly sent to Delhi during the reign of Shah Jehan.

Meaday.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, formerly of considerable magnitude, but on the retreat of the Burmese from Prome in 1825, completely destroyed by fire; lat. 19° 10′ N., lon. 95° E., thirty-seven miles N. from Prome.

Meahgunge (*Miahganj*).—A town in the province of Oude, built in the time of Asoph ud Dowlah, by the noted eunuch Almas Ali Khan, whose name, while in a state of servitude, was Meah; lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 80° 32′ E., twenty-seven miles W. from Lucknow. This is one of the most handsome and regularly built of the small towns within the Oude territories, and, like most towns in this part of Hindostan, is fortified with a brick wall, having round bastions at intervals; but now (1824) trees, towers, gates, and palaces are fast sinking into jungle and rubbish. —(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Meangis Isles.—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, situated about the fifth degree of north latitude and the 127th of east longitude. The inhabitants of Nanusa, one of the largest, are chiefly employed in boat-building.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Meannee.—A fishing village in the province of Mooltan, division of Sinde, situated about four miles east from Tatta; lat. 24° 44′ N., lon. 68° 21′ E. Opposite to this place the Indus is about a mile wide, with three fathoms water. Three miles further east there is another village, where the Indus is about a mile and a quar-

ter wide, and continues so for about two miles, after which it becomes narrower, not exceeding three-fourths of a mile, with four or five fathoms water.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

MEANNEE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, forty miles S.E. from Juggeth point; lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 69° 35′ E.

MEANY (*Miani*).—A town in the province of Lahore, 104 miles N.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 38′ N., lon. 72° 47′ E.

MEASPARA (*Mechpara.*)—A segment of the Rungpoor district, in the province of Bengal, extending along the south side of the Brahmaputra river, about the twenty-sixth degree of north latitude. The Mech tribe, from whom the tract derives its name, appears to have been once more numerous than they are at present, and to have undergone great changes; at least in this territory they have wholly disappeared, and are supposed to have assumed the more elevated title of Rajbungsies. A few families of Mech, who according to Brahminical ideas continue to wallow in the mire of impurity, frequent the borders of the Rungpoor district, towards the frontiers of Bootan and Nepaul, but the tribe forms the major portion of the population in all the tract of country between Cooch Bahar and the mountains, especially near Delhamcotta and Luckedwar. In 1809 Mechpara still contained 300 Garrow families; this race having been greatly encroached on by the inhabitants of the plains, and pushed backwards among the mountains. In Mechpara and the adjacent territory towards the west there are a considerable number of families of a tribe called Kuri, who are said to have been originally Mech; but although they have adopted the language of Bengal, they have not been able completely to wean themselves from their old habits, and are not permitted to assume the name of Rajbungsi. The compensation to be granted to the proprietor of this large pergunnah for the abolition of the sayer or variable imposts, in 1812, was 677 rupees on a jumma or assessment of 2,651, leaving a future annual land tax payable to the government by the zemindar of only 1,974 rupees.—(*F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

MEDNIGUNGE.—A town belonging to the king of Oude in the province of Allahabad, pergunnah of Manicpoor, thirty miles north from the city of Allahabad; lat. 25° 53′ N., lon. 81° 54′ E.

MEEGHEOUNG YAY.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated on the east side of the Irawady, and in 1795 a place of considerable trade; lat. 19° 53′ N., lon. 94° 50′ E.

MEENAS.—See MARWAR.

MEER API.—A celebrated volcano in the island of Java, situated about fifteen miles west from the town of Doyolallie; lat. 7° 25′ S., lon. 110° 30′ E. The ascent from that town is steep and fatiguing, but is compensated by the magnificence of the view from the summit, where the mountain seems split to its foundation, the central gulf formed by the explosions giving it the appearance of three separate mountains. After heavy rains the crater still bursts forth.

The gardens belonging to the town of Selo, situated at the foot of Meer Api, produce most kinds of European fruits, and the vicinity is cultivated to the tops of the mountains. During the night the cold is so intense that a blazing fire is pleasant, although so near to the equator.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

MEERAT (*or Meerta*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-six miles W. by N. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 38′ N., lon. 73° 49′ E. This place belongs to the Joudpoor raja, and was formerly the boundary between his territories and those of Dowlet Row Sindia.

MEERCASERAI.—A small town in the Chittagong district, thirty-five miles N. by W. from Islamabad; lat. 22° 48′ N., lon. 91° 30′ E.

Meerees *(a tribe)*.—See Assam.

Meerpoor.—A town in the province of Lahore, 115 miles N. by W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 31°12′ N., lon. 73° 38′ E.

Meetawul.—A small town in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Cheynpoor, twenty miles travelling distance from Bheekingaum; lat. 21° 42′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Holcar, and contained 112 houses. The surrounding country is covered with jungle.

Megna River.—A river of Bengal formed by the junction of numerous streams issuing from the mountains that compose the northern and eastern boundaries of the Silhet district, but its course is short, and its bulk small until its confluence with the Brahmaputra, about lat. 24° 10′ N., after which it absorbs the name of the latter stream and communicates its own. Eighteen miles south-east of Dacca it is joined by the Issamutty, bringing the collected waters of the Dullasery, Boorygunga (or old Ganges), Luckia, and many smaller streams, the aggregate forming an expanse of water resembling an inland sea. From hence the course of the Megna is S.S.E. until it approaches the sea, where its volume is augmented by the great Ganges, and they conjointly roll their muddy tide into the bay of Bengal. Many islands result from the sediment deposited by this vast body of water, among which are Dukkin Shahabazpoor (thirty miles by twelve), Hattia, Sundeep, and Bаminy.

The sand and mud-banks extend thirty miles to sea beyond these islands, and rise in many places within a few feet of the surface. Some future generation will probably see these banks rise above water, and succeeding ones possess and cultivate them; but while the river is forming new islands at its mouth, it is sweeping away and altering old ones in the upper part of its course. In the channels between these islands, the height of the bore (or perpendicular influx of the sea) is said sometimes to exceed twelve feet. After the tide is fairly passed the islands the bore is but little seen, except in some narrow channels formed by sand-banks; the breadth of the main stream permitting the influx of the tide without any lateral compression.—*(Rennell, &c.)*

Mego Isle *(or Pulo Mego)*.—A very small island in the Eastern seas lying off the west coast of Sumatra; lat. 4° S., lon. 101° 5′ E. This is also called Pulo Mego (or Cloud Island) by the Malays; and Triste, or Isle de Réçif, by Europeans. It is small and uninhabited, and, like many others in these seas, is surrounded by a coral reef, with a lagoon in the centre. On the borders of the lagoon there is a little vegetable mould just above the level of the sea, where some species of timber-trees grow.

All the low islands that lie off the west coast of Sumatra are skirted near the sea so thickly with coco-nut trees that their branches touch each other, while the interior parts, though not on a higher level, are entirely free from them. When uninhabited, as is the case with Pulo Mego, the nuts become a prey to rats and squirrels, unless when occasionally disturbed by the crews of vessels which go thither to collect cargoes for the main-land.—*(Marsden, &c.)*

Mehewa.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-three miles south from Pannah; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 80° 10′ E.

Mehkoor.—A district in the province of Gundwana, which in the time of Acber was comprehended in his undefined province of Berar, and by Abul Fazel, in the Ayeen Acberry, described in A.D. 1582 as follows, to which in 1827 we have nothing to add: "Mehkoor is a populous country, situated between two of the southern ranges of mountains of this soubah, one of which is called Bundeh (Vindhya), and on the top of, which are many forts, *viz*. Kaweel Nernallah, Meelgur, Mehawee, Beroouha, and Ramghur."

Mehwas.—The term Mehwas

ought only to be applied to that portion of the Gujerat province named the Kakreze, but of late years Theraud and both the Neyers have been included in the denomination, owing to the disorderly state of the society. The word Mehwas signifies the residence of thieves, but it is now used to designate a country through which it is difficult to pass, from whatever cause. The villages here greatly resemble each other. There are a few tiled houses: but the majority are in the shape of a bee-hive, thatched, and exhibit a miserable appearance. Besides the family, it usually affords shelter to a horse and to a couple of bullocks or cows.

Formerly in this very turbulent region, any chief who could muster twenty horsemen claimed and extorted a tribute from villages belonging to a power of which he acknowledged himself the dependent, and to which in his own person he paid tribute. Theraud then levied contributions from villages in the Sachore district belonging to Joudpoor, from Wow, and from many villages in the Rahdunpoor territories. Merchants travelling through the Mehwas were accustomed to pay stated sums of money to particular Coolies, who insured their safety as far as a certain point, beyond which plunder immediately commenced. The Rajpoots here have nearly all become Mahomedans, and like the Jahrejahs of Cutch, make no scruple of eating food cooked by a Mahomedan, or even of eating with him.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

MEINDEE COOND. — A waterfall caused by the river Chored, in the province of Malwa, about eight miles south from the British cantonments at Mhow The height of this cataract has been measured, and found to be 180 feet from the bottom of the basin to the commencement of the fall. The name Meindee is derived from that of a woman, who by accident fell in.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MEIWAR.—A district in the province of Candeish situated between the Tuptee and Nerbudda rivers. It is hilly and thinly peopled, and contains many aboriginal Bheel tribes. The principal towns are Sultanpoor, Bejaghur, and Sindwah; the chief streams the Annair and the Tuptee.

MEKLONG (*me, mother; klong, river*).—An inland town in the kingdom of Siam, situated at some distance above Bankok, where the river Meklong joins the Menam. In 1826 it was supposed to contain about 13,000 inhabitants, Siamese and Chinese, and was a place of considerable traffic. From hence the route to Bankok proceeds across the mouth of the Thachin river, which debouches into the sea at the same place with the Meklong. The intervening country in 1826 was mostly inhabited by Peguers. The upper part of the Thachin river, as its name imports, is almost entirely occupied by Chinese, who are engaged in the manufacture of sugar. A little above the mouth of the Thachin is a small river or nullah, which connects that stream with the Menam at Bankok.—(*Leal, &c.*)

MELLOON.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, eighty miles north from Prome, situated on the banks of the Irawady, which is here 600 yards broad; lat. 19° 46′ N., lon. 94° 54′E. A treaty was arranged here with the Burmese in 1825, but after much shuffling and lying, so far from being sent to the king for his ratification, was found in the stockade after the battle in its original condition. The fortifications of Melloon were of a superior description, and had taken many weeks to complete: but were successively captured by the British, with much slaughter on the part of the Burmese.—(*Snodgrass, Trant, &c.*)

MELLOOR.—A town in the Carnatic province, sixteen miles N.E. from Madura; lat. 10° 2′ N., lon. 78° 26′ E.

MENAM, or SIAM RIVER.—This river most probably has its source in Yunan, or in the Shan country, from

whence it flows in a S.S.E. direction, until it joins the sea below Bankok, the modern capital of Siam. In the low part of its course it is one of the finest rivers in the world, from its depth and security of navigation, and in ascending to Bankok, the boughs to the trees brushing the sides, while the lead shews an ample depth of water. The name is derived from *me*, mother; and, *nam*, water, the title of Chao Phya is generally added; but during its upper course it has many names.—(See also SIAM.—(*Public Journals, Burney, &c.*)

MENAMNOT.—A station in Siam, where during the war with the Burmese in 1825, the Siamese built two forts, and posted their army under the command of General Rong-narong, called by the British Rown Rown. The finest cotton in Siam is produced here, which, together with sapan-wood and ship timber are transported from hence to Bankok by the Meklong river.

MENANCABOW (*Menancabau*). — This state, or empire as it is usually called, is situated in the island of Sumatra, under the equinoctial line, beyond the western range of high mountains, and nearly in the centre of the island. In ancient times its jurisdiction is understood to have comprehended the whole of Sumatra; in more modern times its limits were included between the river of Palembang and that of Siak, on the eastern side of the island; and on the western side between those of Manguta (near Indrapoor) and Sinkel, where it borders on the independent country of the Battas.

The seat, or more properly seats, of this now divided government lie at the back of a mountainous district named Tiga-blas-koto (signifying the thirteen fortified and confederated towns), inland from the settlement of Padang. The country is described as a large plain, surrounded by hills producing much gold, clear of wood, and comparatively well cultivated. Although nearer to the western coast, its communication with the eastern side is much facilitated by water-carriage, which consists of a large lake, said to be thirty miles in length, from which a river flows eastward, which afterwards takes the name of Indragiri. Along this, as well as along the other two great rivers of Siak to the north, and Jambee to the southward, the navigation is frequent, the banks being well peopled with Malay colonies.

When Sumatra was first visited by European adventurers this state must have been in its decline, as may be inferred from the political importance at that period of the kings of Acheen, Pedir and Pasay, who up to recent times acknowledged the emperor of Menancabow as their lord paramount.

In consequence of disturbances that ensued after the death of Sultan Alif in 1780, without direct heirs, the government became divided among three chiefs presumed to have been of the royal family, and in that state it continued until about 1819. Passaman, a populous country, and rich in gold, cassia, and camphor, has long disclaimed all manner of allegiance. Each of these three sultans assumed all the royal titles without any allusion to competitors, and asserted all the ancient rights and prerogatives of the empire, which were not disputed so long as they were not attempted to be carried into force. Their authority greatly resembled that of the sovereign pontiffs of Rome during the latter centuries. The members were held sacred, and treated with such a degree of superstitious awe by the country people, that they submitted to be insulted, plundered, and even wounded by them, without making resistance. The titles and epithets assumed by the sultans were the climax of inflated absurdity, and his salute only one gun, it being supposed that no additional number could convey an adequate idea of respect;—by which expedient he also saved his gunpowder.

The kingdom of Menancabow oc-

cupies the central part of Sumatra, and claims a paramount jurisdiction over the whole, which in ancient times was admitted, and is still viewed with a superstitious veneration by all classes. It is entirely peopled with Malays. The language there spoken is Malay, and no tradition exists of the country having ever been inhabited by any other race. So strong indeed is this notion of their own originality, that they commence their national history with an account of Noah's flood, and of the disembarkation of certain persons from the ark at a place between the mouths of the Palembang and Jambi rivers, who were their lineal ancestors; which belief, however futile, serves to shew that they consider themselves as the orang benua or people of the soil, *indigenæ non advenæ*.

The immediate subjects of this empire are all of the Mahomedan religion, Menancabow being regarded as the supreme seat of civil and religious authority in this part of the East, and, next to a voyage to Mecca, to have visited its metropolis stamped a man learned, and conferred a character of superior sanctity. The first sultan of Menancabow is supposed by some to have been a Shereef, or descendant of the prophet; but this tradition claims an antiquity to the empire far beyond the probable era of the establishment of the Mahomedan religion in Sumatra. It is more likely therefore that the nation was instructed and converted, but not conquered, by people from Arabia. The superstitious veneration attached to the family extends not only where Mahomedanism prevails, but among the Battas and other people still unconverted to that faith.

The arts in general are carried to a greater degree of perfection by the Malays of Menancabow than by any other natives of Sumatra. They are the sole fabricators of the exquisitely delicate gold and silver filagree. From the earliest period they have manufactured arms for their own use, and to supply the northern inhabitants of the island. This trade they still continue, s[illegible]ng, forging, and preparing the iron and steel by a process of their own, although they also purchase these metals from Europeans. The use of cannon in this and other parts of India is mentioned by the oldest Portuguese historians, and it must consequently have been known there before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope. Their guns are of the sort called matchlocks, well tempered, and of the justest bore, as is proved by the excellence of their aim. Gunpowder they make in great quantities; but either from the injudicious proportion of the ingredients, or its imperfect granulation, it is very defective in strength. Their other weapons are spears, lances, swords, and a small stiletto, chiefly used for assassination. The creese is a dagger of a peculiar construction, very generally worn stuck in front through the folds of a belt. The blade is about fourteen inches in length, not straight, nor uniformly curving, but waving in and out, which probably may render a wound given with it more fatal. It is not smoothed or polished like European weapons, and the temper is uncommonly hard. This instrument is very richly and beautifully ornamented, and its value is supposed to be enhanced in proportion to the number of persons it has slain. The custom of poisoning them is but rarely practised in modern times.

The warlike operations of this people are carried on rather in the way of ambuscade and the surprising of straggling parties, than open combat. Horses are but little used on account of the nature of the country, and the ranjans, or sharp pointed stakes, which are planted in all the roads and passes. The breed is small, well-made, hardy, and vigorous, and never shod. The soldiers serve without pay, the plunder they obtain being thrown into one common stock and divided among them. The government, like that of all Malay states, is founded on principles entirely feudal. The sovereign is styled raja, maha raja, jang de pertuan, or sultan.

Near to the hot mineral springs at Priaman is a large stone or rock, on which are engraved characters, supposed by the natives to be European, but this appears improbable, as the *European arms until quite recently* never penetrated into this country. It may possibly prove a Hindoo monument, for it has not yet been seen or examined by any native of Europe.

The territories that formerly composed the Menancabow empire are now subdivided into innumerable petty states The province in which the Rinchis reside is called Agum, the distance to which from Siak by water is seven days', and by land three days' journey. Coffee was first cultivated in Menancabow about A.D. 1810, and is now exported from Camphar, a port in Siak, whence the inland Malays receive in return Siam salt, Bengal cotton goods, and coarse China ware, all obtained in the first instance from Singapoor.

In 1819 some chiefs of this country complained to the Dutch at Padang against a sect of Mahomedan fanatics named Padries, who oppressed their peaceably disposed neighbours under the pretext of converting them to a purer faith. By the natives they are called Bangsa and Norinchi, from the names of the two principal districts from which they originally spread themselves. Bangsa is the capital of Lintow, and the residence of the Twanko of Passaman, the chief of the Padries. The term Twanko, in Menancabow is bestowed solely on men of learning. The sect does not appear to be of more than two generations existence. Their religious precepts forbid gambling, spirituous liquors, opium, tobacco, and sirch, and impose a variety of personal observances, especially all those required by the Koran, and the prescribed prayers. These doctrines they most pertinaciously persist in forcibly imposing on others, and the Twanko of Passaman has in consequence become the head of a league, no less unexampled in Sumatran history, than remarkable for the concert and intelligence, by which such numerous conquests have been first accomplished, and afterwards kept under the yoke. The Dutch in consequence of the above application, espoused the cause of the appellants. and invaded the province, taking possession of various parts, and amongst the rest of Pagger Oodong and Menancabow, the ancient capital, and besieged a fortified place named Linto, in which Twanko Passaman, the chief of the Padries, had shut himself up. Various severe engagements took place, in one of which the Dutch were defeated with the loss of twenty-one killed and 121 wounded; but they still retained possession of the conquered districts in Menancabow hostile to the reformers.—(*Marsden, Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

MENDYGHAUT (*Mhendi ghat*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west side of the Ganges, five miles south from Kanoje; lat. 27° 2′ N., lon. 79° 57′ E.

MER.—A town in the province of Cutch, fifteen miles south from Luckput Bunder, on the route from that place to Mandavie; lat. 23° 32′ N.

MERBIDERY.—A town in the province of Canara seventeen miles N.E. from Mangalore; lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 75° 9′ E. This place exhibits some remains of former Jain grandeur, and is still principally inhabited by persons of that religion. Their pagodas are all built of hewn stone, and the large one is a stately edifice. The pillars and roof are sculptured and carved with various figures, symbols of the Jain faith. To the eastward of this place are a number of square pyramids, now in ruins From the vestiges that remain this place appears to have been of great extent, and in remote times probably the capital of a principality, as a large thatched building on the south side of the pagoda is still called the raja's house, and about a mile east of it there are the remains of an old fort.—(*Colonel Lambton, &c.*)

MERCARA.—A town in the province of Malabar, division of Coorg, fifty

miles N.N.E. from Tellicherry; lat. 12° 26′ N., long. 75° 50′ E. The fort of Mercara stands on a rising ground nearly in the centre of an amphitheatre of hills by which it is surrounded. Its form is that of an irregular pentagon, with towers, bastions, and a small work to cover the gateway on the east side. There are two other bastions, but nearly in ruins, and the whole is encompassed by a narrow ditch and double covert way. The raja's palace is within the fort, on one side of an open square, and the front apartment, in which he receives European visitors, is furnished in the English style, with mirrors, carpets, chairs, and pictures.

During the campaign of 1791 the fort of Mercara was in possession of Tippoo's forces, the raja being then in captivity. When the Bombay army arrived he effected his escape, and was offered assistance to retake his capital, which he refused, relying on his own exertions. His plan was to cut off all communication by getting possession of the different avenues by which supplies could enter, and a short time after the garrison, being reduced to the greatest extremity, were on the eve of surrendering, when a circumstance occurred which postponed it. Just at the time when their provisions were nearly expended, a convoy was sent by Tippoo escorted by a considerable force, commanded by a chief who had been instrumental in effecting the Coorg raja's escape: who knowing that a failure to relieve the garrison would cost his benefactor his life, magnanimously permitted the convoy to enter, and the escort to return unmolested. — (*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

MERGUI.—This is the modern capital of the Tenasserim province, and situated in lat. 12° 12′ N., lon. 98° 25′ E. Its harbour is safe for small ships, having two fathoms over the bar at low water, with eighteen feet rise of tide at the springs, it is likely, therefore, hereafter to become a considerable ship, junk, boat, and prow building port. The climate is singularly agreeable, both land and sea breezes being cool, indeed the first more than the last. The European invalids sent here from Rangoon during the Burmese war recovered rapidly.

In 1825 the town and scattered hamlets in the vicinity contained about 1,500 houses and 8,000 inhabitants, comprehending in that number 300 Chinese, 200 native Portuguese and other Christians, and 200 phoonghies or priests, who lived in Buddhist monasteries. The streets of Mergui are wide; the houses built on posts, and the British officers have erected some commodious bungalows on the hill. The kyooms or monasteries are paltry places, but well supplied with priests, as compared with the scanty population of the province. The town is enclosed by a stockade, formed of entire trees, with some brick gateways; but the whole is in a miserable condition, and half a mile from its wooden walls the surrounding country is an impervious jungle. This place having been captured by storm in 1824, the religious edifices were much injured and the images defaced; but they were subsequently repaired at the expense of the British government, and restored to their priests. There is every reason to believe that the journey from hence to Bangnarom, on the gulf of Siam, may be performed by an unencumbered party in four days; indeed in former times there appears to have been a road for elephants, and even for wheeled carriages, from the gulf of Siam to Tenasserim. See also PAKCHAN.—(*Gov. Fullerton, Lieut. Low, Mr. Maingy, &c.*)

THE MERGUI ARCHIPELAGO.—The coast of Tenasserim is protected against the violence of the south-west monsoon by a chain of high, bold, and generally rocky islands, disposed at intervals in a triple and sometimes quadruple line, with wide, deep, and smooth channels between them. Of these islands, down to Domel, no survey has as yet been made, or accurate chart constructed. The islands

that lie opposite to the town of Mergui have much level land, and contain a few patches of cultivation; but the clusters lying north-east of Forest's straits are either bleak barren rocks, or steep rocky islets, covered with trees. Small trickling rills of pure water are to be found in most of them, while their shores abound with a variety of fish and excellent oysters. There is a spacious harbour, capable of containing the largest fleet, situated to the north of St. Matthew's isle, formed by that island, and the adjacent islets named Phipps, Russell, Hastings, and Barwell. During the last war many valuable captures were made by French cruizers, which refitted at Mergui and among the Mergui islands.

A race of men termed by the Chinese Cholomé and Pase are to be found scattered throughout the Mergui, but their dread of the Malay pirates keeps them in constant locomotion to escape slavery. During the north-east monsoon they are obliged to remove from the vicinity of the principal birds'-nest and biche de mar islands, to shun the Malays, Burmese and Siamese, who capture and make slaves of them; their numbers, unless collected on one spot, are quite insignificant. Their home is their boat, for they never form settlements on shore or cultivate, their chief employment being the collection of sea-slug, birds'-nests, and other natural productions of the islands, which they barter with the Chinese traders for cloths and other articles brought from Mergui, being as yet ignorant of the value of money. They have adopted the Burmese dress and religion, but in their general habits are a harmless industrious race. Excluding these itinerants, the Mergui islands appear almost entirely destitute of inhabitants.

Pearls of a good quality and lustre are procured along the shores of nearly all the islands, but hitherto this trade, and indeed every other, has been monopolized by the Burmese, who did not employ divers, but only picked up such oysters as the tide had left dry. The pearls are small and regular, but of a silvery lustre, on which account their value is not great, the natives universally preferring those of a yellowish tinge. —(*Low, Fullerton, &c.*)

MERIAHDO.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, ten miles N. by E. from Huttah; lat. 24° 16′ N., lon. 79° 38′ E.

MERRITCH (*merichi, producing pepper*).—A town of considerable note in the province of Bejapoor, 125 miles S.S.E. from Poona; lat. 16° 51′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. This is a walled town of considerable extent, and appears populous and busy; but the buildings are low and meanly constructed of stone and wood mixed, and covered with earthen terraces. There is not a single pagoda or other Hindoo building of note, but there are many little mosques rudely built of stone, the work of the Bejapoor dynasty, and some centuries old. The most remarkable is the dirga of a Mahomedan saint, conspicuous from its lofty white dome, but otherwise of heavy coarse architecture. The raja resides in the fort, which is a work of some strength, being protected by a ditch and glacis, and ramparts (which are of mud on a basis of stone), flanked with round towers. An avenue of babool-trees leads from Merritch to the nearest bank of the Krishna, where there is a handsome ghaut of masonry, and a temple dedicated to Siva. Except during the heavy floods of the monsoon the river at this spot is fordable. In 1820 Merritch with the district attached belonged in four shares to the Putwurduns, a Maharatta family of southern jaghiredars.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MERUD.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, enclosed by a high wall, and commanded by a fort on its southern side, in which there is said to be a gun as large as those at the city of Bejapoor; lat. 18° 12′ N., lon. 74° 40′ E., forty-seven miles S.E. from Poona.

MERUT *(or South Saharunpoor).*—A district in the province of Delhi, situated about the twenty-ninth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the district of North Saharunpoor, on the south by that of Alighur, to the east it has the district of Moradabad, and on the west the territories assigned for the maintenance of the imperial family and the domains of petty Seik chiefs. In 1813 the arrangement for an improved system of police was much impeded by local circumstances, such as the extent of the surrounding jungle near the town, the military cantonments, and the vicinity of the Begum Somroo's territories at Seerdhuna, which although within the limits of the district, are by treaty exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil power. The distance from Merut to Alighur is eighty-three measured miles, through a country covered with short jungle, inhabited mostly by Goojurs.

Another obstacle originated from the hereditary feuds between the Jaut and Goojur tribes of cultivators, who like other races in a similar stage of civilization, consider themselves pledged to support individuals of their own fraternity, right or wrong, by perjury, rapine, and murder. Some of the Goojurs possess tracts of land approaching the size of principalities. In 1814 the zemindary of Nyne Singh extended forty miles from north to south by twenty from east to west, comprehending 349 villages, assessed at a fixed revenue of only 49,000 rupees. The principal towns in the Merut district are Merut, Seerdhuna, Katoulee, and Hustinapoor.—*(Ker, Blunt, &c.)*

MERUT.—A town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the preceding district, thirty-nine miles N.E. from Delhi; lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E. This place is extensive, and protected on all sides by a wall of brick, but the streets are narrow and meanly built. In its centre are the traces of a kind of citadel, like the rest of the town crowded with mud buildings, and containing a mosque of large dimensions but clumsy architecture. The chief edifices are the Mahomedan tombs without the walls, built of red stone. The cantonments are at some distance to the north of the town, from which it is separated by a long and busy bazar. Merut rivals Cawnpoor in extent, and excels it as a pleasant military station. The barracks (which like those at Cawnpoor and Futtyghur are only one story high) are disposed in regular ranges, at equal intervals from each other, along a space of about two miles, while immediately south of them are the bungalows and gardens of the officers, arranged in spacious streets crossing each other at right angles, and enclosed by fine hedges of parkinsonia to screen the mud-walls, so offensive to the eye at the other military stations of the Doab. The church here is the largest in British India, being capable of holding 3,000 persons: but it is built of bad bricks, covered with stucco and white-wash. The Begum Somroo has a house at Merut, where she sometimes resides.

Merut must have been a place of some note among the Hindoos prior to the Mahomedan invasion, as it is mentioned among the first conquests effected by Mahmood of Ghizni A.D. 1018. Subsequently, in 1240, it is said to have resisted the army of Turmacherin Khan, a descendant of Gengis Khan, but in 1399 it was taken and destroyed by Timour. On the departure of this conqueror it was rebuilt, and devolved to the British government along with the rest of the district in 1803. In 1809 on account of its geographical position it was selected as a principal military station, and the seat of a judicial and revenue establishment. Merut stands in a wide and dry plain, all in pasture, which would afford excellent riding if it were not, like the steppes of Russia, which it much resembles, full of holes made by a small marmot which is common here. —*(Fullarton, Bishop Heber, &c.)*

MEWAR.—A Rajpoot division in the province of Ajmeer, and the proper name of the country at present possessed by the raja of Odeypoor, and situated between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. The country is an elevated plateau equal in elevation with the southern part of Malwa, or about 2,000 feet. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:—"Meywar contains 10,000 villages, and the whole circar of Chitore is dependent on it. It is forty coss long and thirty broad, and has three very considerable forts *viz.* Chitore, Combhere, and Mandel. In Chowra is an iron mine, and in Jainpoor and some places dependent on Mandel are copper mines."

MEWATTIES.—See MACHERRY.

MEYAHOON.—An ancient town in the province of Pegu, formerly named Loonzay, and famous during the wars between the Burmese and Talliens or Peguers; lat. 18° 19′ N., lon. 95° 8′ E. When visited by Col. Symes in 1795, this town extended two miles along the western margin of the Irawadi, and was distinguished by numerous gilded spires and spacious convents; but when visited by Capt. Canning in 1809, it was found like all other Burmese towns, either to have had its picture overcharged in 1795, or since that period to have undergone a general decay.—(*Symes, Canning, &c.*)

MEYANG LA.—A ridge of mountains in Tibet, crossed on the road from Shipké to Yaroo, where in October 1819 there were but few traces of snow, yet the elevation above the level of the sea is 17,700 feet; lat. 31° 20′ N., lon. 78° 57′ E.

MHAIRS (*or Mairs*).—See MARWAR.

MHAR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, situated about twenty-five miles up the Mahar or Bancoote river, which is navigable the whole way. Besides this advantage Mhar stands at the foot of a principal pass leading to Poona, and is contiguous to the passes of Way, Sattara, and Juthin, which are the grand inlets from the Concan to the regions above the ghauts. It is consequently very advantageously situated for commerce.—(*Dunlop, &c.*)

MHEYSHUR (*Mhysir, or Mahesh Asura*).—A considerable town in the province of Malwa, beautifully situated on the right bank of the Nerbudda, which here is a clear, rapid, and unbroken stream about 1,500 feet wide; lat. 22° 8′ N., lon. 75° 32′ E.; seventy-six miles S. by W. from Oojein. In 1820 this place consisted of two wide streets intersecting each other at right angles, paved with stone, and built of wood and masonry after the fashion of Oojein. The fort stands to the west of the town, on an elevated bank from eighty to 100 feet above the surface of the river, with the margin of which it communicates by one of the grandest range of ghauts in Hindostan. These as well as the walls of the fort are of a fine grey stone; and there is a spacious causeway of the same material sloping down to the town.

Within the fort are several Hindoo temples, and the palace which was long the chief residence of the celebrated princess Alia Bhye. Mheyshur still continues in the possession of the Holcar family, being held by Baramal Dada, an adopted child of Alia Bhye's; every thing is in consequence preserved in the highest order. A dial is pointed out on the ramparts, said to have been constructed here in former times by an astronomer from Jeypoor. The ford of the river is at Mundleysir about five miles higher up; and still further east at Oncar there is a high rock resorted to by Hindoo fanatics, for the purpose of sacrificing themselves by precipitation into the sacred stream of the Nerbudda.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MHOKEIR.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, seventy-one miles west from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 58′ N., lon. 74° 29′ E.

MHOW (*Mhao*).—See MOW.

MIDNAPOOR (*Medniper*).—A district in the province of Orissa, but so long attached to Bengal that it may be considered a component part of the province. To the north it is bounded by the districts of Ramghur and Burdwan; to the south by various tributary zemindaries; to the east it has Burdwan, Hooghly, and the sea; and to the west tributary zemindaries and part of Ramghur. In 1800 it was about 130 miles long and from forty to fifty miles broad; the superficial contents between 5,000 and 6,000 square miles. The greater part was then a jungle never cultivated, but not wholly uninhabited. Since the above date its limits have been altered, many of the jungle mahals having been separated from it, while some Maharatta pergunnahs have been incorporated.

In 1801 the collector was of opinion that the cultivation of Midnapoor had not improved or extended since the first year of the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual, which he attributed to a severe dearth in 1799, that carried off a considerable number of the inhabitants. He was also of opinion that two-thirds of the district consisted of jungle, the greater part inaccessible and unfit for cultivation, which appears inconsistent with the immense population (one million and a half) assigned to the territory, both by himself and the magistrate. The clearing of these jungles can only be effected by their inhabitants, as the people of the open country are averse to settling there, and very few of the jungle zemindars have the means of improving their estates. Some portion of these jungles are inhabited by a poor, miserable, proscribed race of men called Sontals, despised on account of their low caste by the inhabitants of the plain country, who would on no account allow any one of them to fix himself in their villages. The peasantry in the vicinity, by way of rendering the distinction intelligible, call themselves good, creditable people, while they scarcely admit the Sontals within the pale of humanity; yet the latter are a mild, sober, industrious people, and remarkable for sincerity and good faith. The zemindars give them no leases, yet on the whole treat them well; for such is their timidity that they fly on the least oppression, and are no more heard of. Notwithstanding they hold their lands on such easy terms, and scarcely ever have their verbal tenures violated, they are said to be naked, half-starved, and apparently in the lowest stage of human misery; a result we would not have expected from the character above assigned them. Their villages are generally situated between the cultivated plain and the thick jungles, in order that they may protect the crops of their more fortunate neighbours from deer and swine. In some instances they have been known to till their lands with considerable success, and raise good crops of rice and collie; but all that their vigilance can preserve from the ravages of wild beasts, is extorted from them by the rapacity of the money-lenders. To these miscreants the Sontals, who have but a slender knowledge of the value of money, pay interest at the rate of 100 per cent. for their food, and nearly 150 per cent. for their seed, so that when their crops are ready little or nothing remains for themselves.

In most parts the increase of cultivation is almost entirely effected by the increase of population, and is very little promoted by any plans for the improvement of agriculture, or by revenue regulation. Waste and jungle land, if in a low situation and fit for rice, may be brought into cultivation in one season, and the poorest man can undertake it. The class of labourers who work for hire is not very numerous, most of the land being tilled by the peasantry who pay the rent. The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are indigo, betel-nut, and sugar; but the plantations of the two first in 1801

did not consist of more than a few hundred begahs, and the value of the sugar about 50,000 rupees. At the same date the value of the rent-free lands was estimated at one-fifth of that subject to the land-tax, which last, although let at the highest rent, is the best cultivated. In 1814 the net jumma or land assessment to the revenue was 14,91,240 rupees, and the abkarry or excise 10,405 rupees.

The manufacturers of Midnapoor are few, and much declined from what they were a century ago, when the Europeans principally frequented Pipley and Balasore. The inland commerce in 1800 was stationary, and there were no extensive commercial enterprizes carrying on except by Europeans, the Company having reduced their investment. Some sanaes are made in the district, and more are imported from the contiguous countries to the south and east; plain gauzes adapted for the use of the country are also woven. European planters have introduced the cultivation of indigo, but the quantity exported has never been great. There are hardly any instances of the zemindars or others of the very few who possess wealth, lending it out to individuals on interest, or vesting it in the Company's funds;—they prefer hiding it as their ancestors did before them. Merchants and persons having commercial transactions with Calcutta, frequently have government paper to a considerable extent.

There are several forts of mud and stone in the Midnapoor district, but they have been long in a state of utter decay. They were built many years ago, and intended for the defence of the inhabitants against the Maharattas, for which purpose they were effectual. The western parts of Midnapoor were formerly much exposed to the depredations of Maharatta robbers, which obliged the zemindars to maintain large bodies of armed men for their protection. Besides these, few natives keep arms of any description, which, perhaps on account of the prevalence of gang robbery, they ought to be encouraged to do. With respect to religious buildings there are none of any consequence. The natives are sometimes, from motives of piety, induced to dig a tank; but there are few new works of this kind. The remains of the old ones attest the superior affluence of former times; or perhaps rather shew that property was then more unequally divided than at present. The private houses of the zemindars and other men of note consist either of forts in ruins, or of wretched huts; nor does it appear that they were ever better in this respect. It may seem surprising that the opulent and respectable natives are so seldom tempted to imitate the commodious dwellings erected by Europeans, and that they have acquired no taste for gardening; but to the climate and the uniformity and simplicity of their manners must be attributed their perseverance in constructing for their own accommodation nothing but the slightest and most miserable huts.

Like the rest of the Bengalese the people here do not work with the view of improving their circumstances, but merely of subsisting their families. They scarcely ever think of procuring themselves better food or better accommodation; and are not stimulated to any efforts of industry by the security they enjoy, but solely by the calls of hunger. They have no luxuries, unless tobacco may be called one; they are always in debt, and borrow at enormous interest; and when by accident they acquire a rupee or two, they remain idle until it is spent.

Within the Midnapoor jurisdiction celibacy is extremely uncommon, an unmarried Hindoo of twenty-five, or an unmarried girl of fifteen being very rare occurrences. The great bulk of the people live a sober, regular, domestic life, and seldom leave their houses, not being called on for the performance of military service and public labour. Very few marriages are unproductive; but the women becoming at an early age debilitated and decrepid, do not probably bear

so many children as in Europe; total barrenness is, however, extremely rare. Polygamy, prostitution, religious austerity, and the circumstance of young widows seldom marrying a second time, are the chief objects, though of no great magnitude, to an increase of the inhabitants. Among the adjuvating causes of increase may be reckoned the facility with which children are reared. In this territory no infants perish of cold, of diseases proceeding from dirt and bad accommodation; nor, except during famines, which are so rare as scarcely to deserve mention, of unhealthy food. The small-pox sometimes carries off multitudes of children; inoculation, although it has been known for ages, being little practised. As soon as a child is weaned it lives on rice, like its parents, requires no care whatever, goes naked for several years, and seldom experiences any sickness. A great majority of the inhabitants have preserved their original simplicity, and the characteristic features of the Hindoos. They are less quarrelsome, and give less trouble than the inhabitants of the neighbouring districts; and being little in the habit of engaging in law-suits they escape the contagion of courts of law.

In Midnapoor there are not any schools where the Hindoo or Mahomedan laws are taught; but in every village there are schools for teaching the Bengalese language and accounts to children in poor circumstances. The teachers, though well qualified for what they undertake, are persons no way respectable, their rank in life being low, and their emolument scanty. The children sit in the open air or under a shed, and learn to read, write, and cast accounts, for from one to two annas (twopence to fourpence) per month. A person charged with several thefts being sent for by the judge, and asked his occupation, said it was the teaching of children; and an inquiry it appeared he was eminent in his line. On his conviction it seemed to excite no surprise among the natives that a person of his profession should turn out a th In opulent Hindoo families teacl are retained as servants. Per and Arabic are taught for the m part by the Moolavies, who in ge ral have a few scholars in t houses, whom they support as v as instruct. Thus Persian and A bic students, although of respecta families, are considered as living charity; and they are total strang to expense or dissipation. There formerly a Mahomedan college Midnapoor; and even yet the e blishment exists, but no law is taug There are scarcely any Moguls; one-seventh of the whole inhabita are supposed to be Mahomedans.

Throughout this district there ists now a universal impression (it applies to all the older British quisitions) that property is not li to confiscation or gross violation supreme authority, which noth but the long experience of the ad rably impartial distribution of jus in Bengal could ever influence a tive to credit. It was formerly custom to bury treasure and valu goods, and to conceal the acquisi of wealth. This is still done, generally from the dread of g robbers, never from any appreh sion that the officers of governm will lay violent hands on private p perty.

The principal places in Midnap are the towns of Jellasore and I ley; but the district contains town of magnitude. It was acqui in 1761, by cession from Cossim Khan, the reigning nabob of Ben and in 1770 was afflicted with one the most destructive famines recor in history, which swept away nea half the people. Since that peri except in 1789, when a partial fam occurred, the number of inhabita has been gradually increasing, and 1801 was estimated at 1,500,000. 1814 measures were adopted by magistrate for the apprehension a dispersion of bands of Choars, re ing in the north-western quarter the district, and of checking th horrid barbarities, the details of wh

will be found under the article BAUGREE.—(*Sir Henry Strachey, J. H. Ernst, J. Grant, &c.*)

MIDNAPOOR.—The capital of the preceding district, situation in lat. 22° 25′ N., lon. 87° 25′ E., seventy miles W. by S. from Calcutta. This place being a frontier station, had formerly a fort, but it has since been converted to a criminal prison. The civil gaol and hospital are thatched buildings at a distance from the old fort. By the exertions of successive magistrates the roads adjacent to this town have been brought into an excellent condition, being constructed of gravel and hard materials, and planted with avenues of trees. Considerable progress has also been made in forming a road from hence to Bissenpoor, which when completed will not only shorten the distance to travellers and merchants no less than thirty-three miles; but by penetrating the wild and jungly pergunnah of Baugree, expose to view the haunts of Chuars and other banditti, and greatly facilitate their apprehension.—(*Winter, Strachey, &c.*)

MILUM TEMPLE.—A small temple in Northern Hindostan, near the Niti pass, 11,682 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 30° 25′ N., lon. 80° 8′ E.

MINDANAO ISLE.—See MAGINDANAO

MINDORO ISLE.—A large island, one of the Philippines, situated due west from the south-western extremity of Luzon, and distant about twenty miles. In length it may be estimated at 110 miles, by twenty-five the average breadth. The interior of this island is mountainous, but along the sea-coast the height of the land is moderate, and the whole being covered with trees, makes a beautiful appearance from on board ship. The channel between Mindoro and the shoals near the Calamine isles is only three leagues wide. Mount Calapan, on the eastern extremity, was formerly passed by the galleon on her voyage from Acapulco to Manilla. The Spaniards, although so long lords paramount of the Philippines, have few establishments here, but the island is otherwise well inhabited. The early navigators, who first visited Mindoro on their return to Europe, insisted that the inhabitants had tails of considerable length.—(*Meares, Sonnerat, La Page, &c.*)

MINERY.—A small village on the road from Candy to Trincomalee, sitated on the banks of a tank or artificial lake, above fifteen miles in circumference. The embankment is a quarter of a mile long and at the top about sixty feet broad: but the water in 1818, in place of benefitting the country, was running waste, creating swamps and supporting unwholesome vegetation.—(*Davy, &c.*)

MINIOORFE (*Minapuri*).—A walled town of considerable size, the modern capital of the Etaweh district, situated about sixty-two miles east from Agra; lat. 27° 14′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E. It stands on the banks of the Issa, in a fertile and productive country, and has a considerable population.

MINTOW.—The chief town in the island of Banca, and seat of the tin trade. It stands near the sea towards the west, at the base of a mountain named Monapin, and nearly opposite to the river Palembang. In 1819 it contained about 2,000 inhabitants, of whom a majority were Chinese, and the rest Malay and Dutch half-castes.

MIRWANAH.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-six miles west from Kurnaul; lat. 29° 36′ N., lon. 76° 6′ E.

MIRZANAGUR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, fifty-three miles N.E. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 56′ N., lon. 89° 13′ E.

MIRZAPOOR.—A district in the province of Allahabad, one of the fiscal and judicial subdivisions of the Benares province, but the limits of the magisterial authority have never been accurately defined, nor has it any separate collector, the revenue being paid into the Benares treasury.

In 1801 Mirzapoor was described by the then judge as possessing a flourishing commerce, and being otherwise in a progressive state of improvement. Besides what proceeded from natural causes, the country at that period received an annual access of population by emigrants from the contiguous territories subject to petty native chiefs, which were constantly agitated by internal feuds and dissensions. The total number of inhabitants in 1801 was estimated at 900,000 souls, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to twenty Hindoos in the country parts, and to one in ten in the towns. The chief town is Mirzapoor, but the district contains many smaller of from five to ten thousand persons. In 1801 there still existed many forts built of masonry, and also the remains of many mud forts. There were then no schools or seminaries for instruction in the Hindoo or Mahomedan law, no bridges of any note, nor any public edifice of magnitude. In 1815 the tranquillity of the frontier villages was much disturbed by predatory incursions from the Burdee raja's country, but energetic measures having been adopted, they were effectually suppressed.—(*Public MS. Documents, R. Ahmuty, &c.*)

Mirzapoor.—A large and flourishing town in the province of Allahabad, district of Mirzapoor, situated on the south side of the Ganges, about thirty miles travelling distance W.S.W. from Benares; lat. 25° 10′ N., lon. 83° 35′ E. It is at present one of the greatest inland trading towns, and has long been the grand mart for cotton. The native inhabitants are more remarkable for their active industry than in any part of the Company's dominions out of the three capitals. A considerable quantity of filature silk is imported to Mirzapoor from Bengal, and passes here to Upper and Central Hindostan. In the vicinity a very durable carpeting and various fabrics of cotton are manufactured. The modern town consists of handsome European houses, native habitations, and clusters of Hindoo temples crowding the banks of the Ganges, and seen from the river the whole makes an animated appearance. The soil of the town and lands adjacent is so strongly impregnated with saline particles, as materially to injure buildings composed of brick and mortar. In 1801 Mirzapoor was found to contain 50,000 inhabitants, which have probably since then increased at least one-half, not only from the uninterrupted tranquillity it has enjoyed, but also from the additional stimulus occasioned by the opening of the commerce with Europe, and the increased demand for cotton, the bales of which are sent direct to Diamond Harbour.

About six miles from Mirzapoor, near the site of the deserted military station of Tarah, there is a fine waterfall, formed by the descent of a rivulet from the table-land of the Vindhya hills into the plain. The height of this fall is about sixty feet, and during the rainy season the volume of water is frequently very considerable. At Bindbashy, some miles above Mirzapoor, where the Vindhya mountains approach the river, there is a temple of Devi, much resorted to by devout persons of the Hindoo faith. Travelling distance from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 754, by Birboom 654 miles.—(*Colebrooke, Fullarton, Tennant, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

Misfl.ar Isle.—A small island about fifteen miles in circumference, lying off the bay of Tappanooly, on the west coast of Sumatra; lat. 1° 39′ N., lon. 98° 30′ E. This is a high mountainous island, between which and the main is a navigable channel, about four leagues broad.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

Mismles (*a tribe*).—See Assam.

Mitenda Kat.—A small town in the Afghan dominions, situated on the west bank of the Indus; lat. 28° 35′ N., lon. 70° 15′ E. At this place the Indus is joined by rivers of the Punjab in one stream here named the Punjnud.—(*Lieut. Macartney, &c.*)

MOA ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the eastern extremity of Timor, and intersected by the 128th degree of east longitude; lat. 8° 20′ S. Although an island of considerable size, having several others adjacent, nothing is known respecting it but its geographical situation.

MOAMAREAS *(a tribe)*.—See ASSAM.

MOCOMOCO.—A town on the S.W. coast of Sumatra, district of Anak Sungei; lat. 2° 31′ S., lon. 101° 10′ E. Fort Ann lies on the southern, and the settlement on the northern side of the Si Luggan river, which name properly belongs to the place also, and Mocomoco to a village higher up. The soil of the surrounding country is low and sandy, and the face of the country low and flat. The first English settlement was formed here in A.D. 1717, since which time there has been a standing engagement of reciprocal protection, the Company undertaking to assist the chiefs of the interior if attacked, and the latter to lend them aid against a maritime invasion. During the eruptions of the great volcano of Tomboro on the island of Sumbhawa on the 11th April 1816, the noise was so loud in this neighbourhood, although the distance exceeded 1,400 miles, and so much resembled discharges of artillery, that the inland chiefs supposing Fort Ann at Mocomoco was attacked from the sea, armed their dependents and marched down in a body to assist the garrison.—(*Marsden, Public Journals, &c.*)

MODAPILLY.—A small town in the Northern Circars, thirteen miles N.E. from Ongole; lat. 16° 25′ N., lon. 80° 6′ E.

MOGAUM *(Magoung)*.—A town and country lying to the east of Assam and north of Ava, to which kingdom, however, it has been for sometime united. The town is supposed to stand about lat. 25° N., lon. 96° 15′ E., and about twenty miles west of the Irawady.

Nan Quedah, the hereditary raja of Mogaum under the Burmese government in 1825, was one of the most ferocious murderers on record. When driven from Cachar by the British troops he seized on several Bengalese who had gone to trade in Assam, and being in low spirits owing to his defeat, he had violent fits of weeping daily, during which he used to have the unfortunate prisoners above-mentioned brought before him, and either beheaded or ripped open. During his government of Assam he seized the wife of another chief and had her roasted to death. Sham Phokum in consequence revolted, defeated Nan Quedah, and at last secured the monster's person, who with his two sons was immediately beheaded. His skull was afterwards presented to the Phrenological Society of Calcutta.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

MOGHISERAI.—A station in the province of Malwa, situated in lat. 24° 17′ N., lon. 77° 37′ E. As this place is approached from Seronge the elevation increases, and the ghauts are ascended, so that in one day's march a country is reached 800 feet higher than in the morning, the whole of the adjacent surface being considerably elevated above that of Bundelcund.

MOHAUN.—A town in the province of Oude, containing many brick houses and a bridge over the Sye, about sixteen miles west from Lucknow.

MOHIM.—A large town thinly inhabited and in a ruinous condition, in the province of Delhi, sixty-five miles west from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 44 N., lon. 76° 2′ E.

MOHINDRA MALLEE *(the chain of Maha Indra)*.—A chain of hills in the Northern Circars, district of Guntoor, running parallel with the sea, at a distance of from five to ten miles.

MOHUN.—The vestiges of an ancient and now entirely deserted town in the province of Ajmeer, situated at the junction of two nullahs, south

from Chota Odeypoor about fourteen miles. From the remains of wells, tombs, &c. it must formerly have been of considerable extent. At present it belongs to the raja of Odeypoor.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MOHUNGUR.—A town in the province of Agra, south of the Chumbul, sixty miles W.S.W. from Jhansi; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 77° 21′ E.

MOHUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, forty-nine miles N. from Seronge; lat. 24° 47′ N., lon. 77° 36′ E.

MOHURBUNGE (*Moherbunj*).—A zemindary in the province of Orissa, bounded on the north by the district of Midnapoor; on the east by that of Balasore; on the south by the tributary estate of Neelghur; and on the west by the Gond mountains. In extreme length this territory extends 150, and in extreme breadth 100 miles, but the area is much less than the amount indicated by these dimensions. It is but thinly peopled, indifferently cultivated, and was much infested by wild elephants, until the raja, a few years ago, by the advice of a scientific religious mendicant, had a quantity of a mineral poison (mohri) mixed up with rice balls and strewed about in the jungles. A great number were destroyed by the poison, eighty having been found dead, and the rest decamped in alarm, but have since re-appeared in another quarter. From the inconsiderable number of which these herds consisted, it seems probable that the elephant is not indigenous to the province, and the breed is supposed to have originated from the escape of some domesticated elephants many years ago. The hills yield timber of various sizes, which is floated down to Balasore and other ports. Iron, dammer, and lac are procured in considerable quantities, and the country is susceptible of much improvement. It had suffered greatly by the predatory incursions of the neighbouring chiefs while subject to the Maharattas, to which power the estate paid a tribute of 6,000 rupees per annum; but the raja was then allowed to collect a tax on pilgrims going to Juggernauth, which has since the British conquest been abolished.

The principal articles produced and manufactured in Mohurbunge are rice, timber of all sorts, dammer, oil, lac, bows, arrows, and spears, a small quantity of each being exported. The revenue accruing to the proprietor was estimated in 1814 at from 40,000 to 50,000 rupees per annum. Where no battles were fought, and the natives remain unmolested by military exactions, and where the zemindar or his agent remained unchanged, the lands of the Maharatta districts in the immediate neighbourhood of Midnapoor were found in as high a state of cultivation and population as the contiguous portions of the British districts. One cause which then tended to the increase of a well superintended Maharatta estate, was the constant accession of numbers by emigration from the neighbouring countries. It is the interest of the proprietor of a zemindary to take as much care of his cultivators as a farmer does of his cattle, and that is sufficient to promote their increase. The peasantry in the British territories enjoy the degree of security essential to their increase, which is not the case with the far greater portion of the former Maharatta country, vast tracts of which still remain desolate. The principal towns are Harriorpoor and Bastar It is not traversed by any large river, but several hill streams flow through it to the bay of Bengal. This zemindary was formerly of greater extent, but was much curtailed by the Maharattas, who separated Balasore and other tracts of country. During their government it was a dependency on Cuttack, but paid also an inconsiderable tribute to the British on account of some lands in Midnapoor north of the Subunreeka river. By the arrangements of 1803 the chief of this territory was exempted from the tribute he had paid to the Maharattas, and had his estates guaranteed on condition of his faithfully fulfilling

his duty as a tributary to the British government. The fixed tribute on this account was sufficiently moderate, being only 1,000 rupees per annum. The person in possession of this zemindary in 1814 was named Trebikram Bhunje.—(*Richardson, Stirling, Strachey, J. Grant, 1st Register, &c.*)

Moidapoor.—A village in the province of Bengal, five miles distant from the cantonments of Berhampoor and Moorshedabad. In this neighbourhood there are several good European houses, which are generally occupied by the civil authorities of the city and district.

Mojopahit.—An ancient city (now in ruins) in the island of Java, district of Wisanba, thirty-three miles S.W. from Surabaya; lat. 7° 31′ S., lon. 112° 24′ E. The ruins of the palace, and several gateways, remains of temples, &c., composed of burned bricks, are still visible; but the country in general is completely covered with a stately forest of teak trees. The walls of a tank twelve feet high, also of burned bricks, 1,000 feet long by 600 broad, are still quite perfect; but its area in 1813 was one rich sheet of rice cultivation. The ruins cover several square miles, and are particularly distinguished as being principally if not wholly of burned bricks. Images of Ganesa and other Hindoo relics are occasionally found here, but in general the vicinity of Mojopahit is remarkable for the absence of any representations of Brahminical deities; indeed the prevalent religion is conjectured to have been the Buddhist. The name means "the place of the bitter Mojo tree."

The origin of this state remains unknown, although all accounts agree that it was destroyed in A.D. 1478, and from presumptive evidence it may be inferred that it was founded about a century and a half before that era, and it was certainly the most powerful kingdom in Java at the period of the Mahomedan conversion. The dynasty of princes that reigned at Mojopahit appears to have subdued the finest provinces of the island, and to have spread the Javanese name and arms beyond the limits of their own country; for it was during this era that Palembang in Sumatra was founded by a Javanese colony, and the Malayan state of Singhpura subverted.—(*Raffles, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Mokaura.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, forty-seven miles S.E. from Damaun; lat. 19° 56′ N., lon. 73° 29′ E.

Molucca Isles (*Maluku*).—This term in its most extensive application is understood to signify all the islands situated to the eastward of the Molucca passage, in lon. 126° E., particularly those of Gilolo; but in its more limited sense it is usually restricted to the Dutch spice islands, which are Amboyna, Banda, Ceram, Ternate, Tidore, and Batchian. When first visited by the Portuguese navigators despatched by Albuquerque in A.D. 1510, they were found occupied by two distinct races of people, the Malays or Mahomedans, on the sea-coast, and the Oriental negroes, or mop-headed Papuas, in the interior. The latter have ever since been rapidly decreasing, and in most of the small islands have wholly disappeared; but in the more eastern they still hold their ground, and retain undisturbed possession of New Guinea.

The Malays of these islands have adopted so many foreign words, that their dialect differs very much from the common Malay, and in writing they occasionally make use of Latin characters to express the Malay language. The ancient Ternata, or Molucca language, appeared to Dr. Leyden to have been an original tongue. Among these islands are many of the pretended descendants of Mahomed, named Shereefs, who are held in great respect, more especially if they have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca. Under their respective heads further particulars respecting these islands will be found.—(*Forrest, Leyden, &c.*)

Monchaboo.—A town of small

size in the Burmese dominions, but much venerated as having been the birth-place of Alompra, the founder of the present dynasty, and during his short and active reign the capital of the empire. Lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 96° 20′ E. The distance from Rangoon to Monchaboo by the Irawady is 500 miles.—(*Symes, &c.*)

Monkah.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, situated at the junction of the Sone and Ganges, twenty-one miles west from Patna; lat. 25° 39′ N., lon. 84° 52′ E. This place is remarkable for the beautiful mausoleum of Mukdoom Shah Dowlet, built of a sort of free-stone, and perhaps the most elegant specimen of Mogul architecture below the Doab. Its dome and pavilioned turrets in 1819 were still entire, nor had the stone trellices or fret-work then lost much of their original sharpness. In the neighbourhood various Hindoo remains are scattered about, particularly an enormous mutilated image of the Singh, a fabulous lion, devouring an elephant, similar to that which is exhibited on the bridge at Juanpoor, and which is the external decoration of all the Hindoo temples at Almora in Northern Hindostan.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Monghir (*Muda giri*).—A celebrated town and fortress in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, situated on the south side of the river Ganges, which here in the rainy season presents a prodigious expanse of fresh water; lat 25° 23′ N., lon. 86° 26′ E. The fort of Monghir is large, and surrounded by a deep ditch, and has on account of its physical advantages been probably a place of note from the remotest antiquity. It is most beautifully situated on a bend of the Ganges, which in the rainy season forms here an immense expanse of fresh water. During the whole period of the Mogul government, Monghir continued to be a place of importance, and was the station of a series of officers of considerable rank. It was strengthened by Shah Shujah, brother to Aurengzebe, and almost a century afterwards repaired by Cossim Ali, when he intended to throw off his dependence on the English government, which had raised him to the throne. He added considerably to the fortifications, and endeavoured to discipline the natives for its defence: but in vain, for it was taken after a siege of only nine days. While Monghir was a frontier town it was a place of considerable importance, a station of one of the brigades, and a depôt of ammunition; but since the expansion of the British dominions beyond Delhi, and the selection of Allahabad for a depôt, the fort of Monghir has been suffered to go to decay, and is now degraded to an invalid station, a lunatic asylum for the native military, and a depôt for the army clothing, the neighbourhood being a noted resort of tailors. In case of exigence the fortifications might still be repaired so as to exclude a native army; but without a total change could not resist a regular attack, the works being of great extent, and apparently never intended for defence by ordnance.

The town of Monghir, as distinct from the fortress, consists of sixteen different market-places, scattered over a space of about one mile and a half long and one wide. The only two portions of this space that are close built, or resemble a town, are without the eastern and southern gates of the fort, at each of which is a street sufficiently wide to admit carriages to pass, and closely built, with several brick houses. Between the river and the northern gate of the fort is a suburb, which may be considered as belonging to the fort, but is mostly built on the sand of the Ganges, which renders it necessary every year to remove many of the houses during the flood. The number of houses may be estimated at 5,000, and six persons allowed to a house, giving a total population of 30,000 persons. The place of worship in most repute amongst the Mahomedans is the monument of Peer Shah Lohauni, where both Hindoos and Mahomedans make frequent offerings.

especially when they are married and on similar emergencies.

The gardeners of Monghir are noted throughout Bengal for their expertness; and, as has already been mentioned, the tailors are not of less celebrity, much of the army clothing being made here, besides shoes both of native and European fashion. Here also and at Boglipoor are some workmen who make European furniture, palanquins, and carriages, and when furnished with sound materials, and well looked after, are really clever workmen. The blacksmiths occupy about forty houses, and make goods after the European fashion, very course when compared with English articles, but still useful and cheap, as will be seen by the following prices, viz.—Double barrelled guns, thirty-two rupees; rifles, thirty; single barrelled fowling-pieces, eighteen; muskets eight, matchlocks, four; pistols, ten; double ditto, thirty; table-knives and forks per dozen, six rupees. The barrels of the fire-arms are made by twisting a rod round an iron spindle, and then hammering it together; the bore is afterwards polished and enlarged by borers of different sizes.

The hot spring named Seetacoond is situated in a plain near the Ganges, about five miles from Monghir. A cistern of brick has been built to include the springs, and forms a pool of about eighteen feet square. At different places many air bubbles rise from the bottom, issuing many at one time with irregular intervals between the ascents, and near to where these rise the water is always hottest. When visited by Dr. Francis Buchanan in April 1810, the thermometer in the open air being 68° Fahrenheit, rose to 130° when immersed; on the twentieth of that month from 84° to 122°, yet on the twenty-eighth a little after sun-set the thermometer only rose from 90° to 92°. At another period on the the 21st July from 90° to 132°, and on the 21st September from 88° to 132°. On the evening of the 7th August 1819, when visited by Mr. Fullarton, it rose from 93° to 136°. The water is clear, the heat generally preventing its being polluted by the natives and other animals. Travelling distance from Calcutta by Birboom 275 miles; by Moorshedabad 301 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Rennel, &c.*)

Monjpoor.—A small town in the province of Gujerat belonging to the nabob of Rahdunpoor, 55 miles N. W. from the city of Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 33′ N., lon. 71° 50′ E. The fortifications of this town are insignificant, but the surrounding country is more enclosed than the contiguous districts, and has a rough, rugged appearance.—(*Carnac, &c.*)

Monsoon.—See India South of the Krishna.

Montpezir.—A cave temple in the province of Aurungabad, island of Salsette, in the vicinity of which the ruins of a monastery of Jesuits are still to be seen.

Montradok (*or Tradok*).—A Chinese town in the island of Borneo, eighty miles inland S.E. from Sambas; lat. 0° 45′ N., lon. 109° 15′ E. On the west side of Borneo between Mampava and Sambas, is a tract of land occupied by Chinese settlers, said to be the descendants of the crews of junks shipwrecked two centuries ago, augmented by subsequent migrations from the mother country. To the east it is bounded by a range of lofty mountains named Tradok, almost immediately under which is the principal town named Montradok. Between Soongy Ryah (a safe harbour) and Sillaca are several small ports of trade, occasionally visited by European vessels, from each of which there is a road of easy access to Montradok, through a cultivated country ornamented with Chinese villas on each side. The face of the country is a mixture of hill and dale; the passes are guarded by small forts, and the streams crossed by bridges. The journey occupies from two to four days.

The town of Montradok is situated on a plain under a range of moun-

tains, and is about three miles long by half a mile broad, and divided into bazars or quarters, each inhabited by a distinct trade. The purchases from foreign vessels are made by the head-men; if large or on account of the government, by the Chinese captain of Montradok; the returns are made in gold-dust the produce of the mines. According to Chinese traditions the religion of the natives when their ancestors landed was Hindoo. From the patriarchal nature of Chinese institutions, the population is likely to increase, and they are now independendent of all external control, Malay or European.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

MOODAPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsingh, sixty-eight miles N. by W. from the city of Dacca; lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 90° 5′ E.

MOODHILL.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty-six miles S.S.W. from the city of Bejapoor; lat. 16° 50′ N., lon. 75° 21′ E. In 1820 there was a mint here conducted on the most dishonest principles, the jaghiredar (the head of the Gorapena family) assuming the privilege of coining a rupee, a fac-simile of the Bagulcot or Mulhar Shahy rupee, but sixteen per cent. below its intrinsic value.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

MOOHNEE.—A town in the province of Lahore, eight miles N.W. from Nadone; lat. 31° 53′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E.

MOOJABAD.—A considerable town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty miles S.W. from Jeypoor; lat. 26° 42′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. There is here a mosque, some good gardens, and several temples, the largest of which belongs to the Jains, who are more numerous in this quarter than further east, engrossing a large proportion of the banking and traffic of the western half of upper Hindostan.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

MOOLKIER.—A town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa; lat. 20° 46′ N., lon. 74° 5′ E.; sixty-nine miles S.E. from Surat. The river Moosun here forms a cataract of twelve feet, and the scenery of the mountains and valleys, covered with jungle and swarming with wild beasts, is singularly grand and picturesque. The climate is healthy during the wet monsoon, the excessive heat being moderated by the copious rains arrested in their passage by the surrounding mountains. The fort is about a mile to the south, and is formed by a naturally perpendicular rock, extending about half a mile east and west, and by a rough estimate 1,000 feet high. There is said to be a considerable space on the top, and tanks excavated from the solid rock. The land here is mostly cultivated by Bheels from the surrounding hills, who have here attained to an advanced stage of civilization, as they also manufacture coarse cloth for sale. Moolkier in 1814 had much decayed and did not contain above 200 inhabited houses, although the ruins of many handsome edifices indicated a former state of greater prosperity.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

MOOLKY.—A town in the Canara province, sixteen miles N. by W. from Mangalore; lat. 13° 7′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E.

MOOLOOPETTA.—A town remarkable for its salubrity, on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, ninety miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 13′ N., lon. 78° 55′ E. During the months of March and April, invalids resort here for the benefit of the sea-breeze and change of air.

MOOLTAN.

In its greatest dimensions this province extends from the sea to Lahore, and formerly comprehended the country on both sides of the Indus, between the twenty-fourth and thirtieth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Lahore; on the south by the Indian ocean; to the east it has the great desert of

Ajmeer or Rajpootana; and on the west the course of the Indus separates it from the Baloochistan and the Cabul dominions. When Abul Fazel composed the Institutes of Acber Mooltan was one of the largest provinces of the empire, extending to the frontiers of Persia, and including within its limits the modern countries of Mooltan, Baloochistan, Sinde, Shekarpoor, Sewistan, and Tatta, besides a portion of the Doabs now attached to Lahore. Since that period its limits have been so contracted, that the extent of territory exclusively assigned to the name does not exceed 110 miles in length, by seventy in breadth. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:

"The soubah of Mooltan lies in the first, second, and third climates. Before that Tatta was comprised in this soubah, it measured in length from Ferozepoor to Sewistan 403 coss, and was in breadth from Kintpoor to Jesselmere 108 coss; but with the additional length of Tatta it measures to Cutch and Mekraun 660 coss. On the east side lies Sircar Sirhind; the pergunnah of Jhoor joins it on the north; on the south it is bounded by the province of Ajmeer; and on the west are Cutch and Mekraun; both of which are independent territories. The six rivers described in Lahore pass through this soubah. The river of Behut, near the pergunnah of Shoor, unites with the Chinaub, and then after running twenty-seven coss, they disembogue themselves into the river Sinde, near Ooch. For the distance of twelve coss near Ferozepoor the rivers Beyah and Sutuleje unite, and then again as they pass along separate into four streams, *viz.* the Hur, the Haray, the Dund, and the Noorny, and near the city of Mooltan these four branches join again. All the rivers that disembogue themselves into the Sinde (Indus) take its name; but in Tatta the Sinde is called Mehran. The mountains of this soubah lie on the north side. In many respects it resembles Lahore, except that but little rain falls here, and the heat is excessive. Between Sewee and Behkar (Backar) is a large desert, over which during the summer months there blows the pernicious hot winds called the simoom. The river Sinde some years inclines to the north, and sometimes to the south, and the villages change accordingly. This soubah contains three circars, divided into eight pergunnahs. The measured lands are 3,273,932 begas; the revenue 151,403,619 dams, out of which 659,948 are seyurghal. It furnishes 13,785 cavalry and 165,650 infantry."

Such is Abul Fazel's delineation of this province during the reign of Acber, when it was probably but little known, as the detail is more than usually replete with geographical errors. The principal modern territorial divisions within the limits of Hindostan are the following, commencing from the north:

1. Mooltan Proper,
2. Bahawulpoor,
3. Backar,
4. Sinde,
5. Tatta,
6. Chalchkaun.

As has been mentioned above, the greatest length of the territory now distinguished by the name of Mooltan is 110 miles, by about seventy its greatest breadth; and it is comprehended between the Sutuleje (here named the Gurrah), the Ravey, and the Chinaub. From the right bank of the Sutuleje, journeying from Bahawulpoor in a north-westerly direction, after the first five miles, in the month of December, the country is arid, sandy, and destitute of grass, but scattered over with hardy bushes, which can withstand the parched and saline soil. In the immediate vicinity of the villages, which are numerous, fields of wheat, cotton, and corn are to be seen, and also a number of large and deep water-courses. The north-west corner of the desert is cut off by the streams of the Punjab, and the tract thus formed within reach of the periodical inundation is fertile, while the rest is sandy and barren, and but very thinly inhabited. Of this character are the districts of

Mooltan Proper, Bahawulpoor, and Leia, which are all situated to the south of the salt range of mountains, and east of the Indus. Besides its natural sterility this miserable country has suffered greatly from the incursions of the Seiks, Afghans, the Ameers of Sinde, and other depredators.

Anterior to the invasion of Hindostan by Mahmood of Ghizni this province appears to have been occupied by Mahomedans, as he is applauded by Persian authors for having in A.D. 1006 subdued Daoud Khan, an Afghan heretic who then occupied the country, and compelled him to embrace the true faith, from which, however, he soon after apostatized. It continued subject to the Patan and Mogul empires until the dissolution of the latter, after which it underwent many changes. It was taken from Mahomed Shah the Delhi sovereign by Nadir Shah, and on the death of that conqueror devolved to Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul. For a short time before the battle of Paniput it was under the yoke of the Maharattas, but was then wrested from these plunderers and never recovered.

At a later period the Seiks held it for two years, and continued annually to extort pecuniary compensations for abstaining from plundering it. In 1809 the total revenue was estimated at five and a half lacks of rupees, of which two and a half were paid to the Cabul sovereign, to whom the Mooltan nabob was a feudatory. At that date the troops within the city of Mooltan were estimated at 2,000 men, with twenty bad guns; but on an emergency it was supposed that 12,000 additional militia might be collected. Since the above date it has been subdued by Runjeet Singh of Lahore, to whom it still continues tributary. The former government, however, with respect to monopolies and other exactions, is known to have been execrable, the oppressions of the civil government having been aggravated by the extortions of rapacious and ungovernable troops within, and by the miseries of its political situation without. Being placed at a distance from the British territories, possessing no political or commercial importance, and being but seldom visited by Europeans, we are probably less acquainted with this than with any other of the original provinces of Hindostan.—(*Abul Fazel, Elphinstone, Rennell, MS., &c.*)

Mooltan (*Multan*).—The capital of the preceding province, situated in lat. 30°9′ N., lon. 71°7′ E., four miles from the left bank of the Chinaub or Acesines, which has previously received the waters of the Ravey (Hydrastes) and the Jhylum (Hydaspes). It is enclosed by a fine wall from forty to fifty feet high, with towers at regular distances. It has also a citadel on a rising ground, and several fine tombs, two of which are ornamented with painted and glazed tiles. There are many other places of interment scattered round the town, and three miles from the north bank of the river the mountains of Afghanistan may be discerned, distant from seventy to eighty miles. During the cold season the joint streams of the Jhylum, Chinaub, and Ravey at Rajghaut near this city is 500 yards broad, with an average depth of eight feet and a half; and the town itself stands nearly at the same distance from the sea as Allahabad, that is, about 800 British miles by the course of the rivers.

Mooltan is noted for its silks and for a species of carpet much inferior to those of Persia. The country in the vicinity is pleasing, fertile, and in 1809 was tolerably cultivated, being supplied with a sufficiency of water from wells. The land is in general naturally good; but a large proportion of the adjacent villages have long been in ruins, and the whole exhibit the appearance of a country once prosperous, but now in a state of decay. In 1809 about one-half of the fields were in tillage, and abundantly watered by means of Persian wheels, producing wheat, cotton, millet, turnips, carrots, and indigo. The trees are chiefly neem and date,

with a few dispersed peepul trees. The uncultivated country near the river is covered with a dense copse wood of tamarisk mixed with a tree resembling the willow. At a distance from the river the country is bare, except where scattered with tufts of grass and a few date trees, the whole swarming with all sorts of game.

This city is supposed to have been the Malli of Alexander's historians, and in 1582 is described by Abul Fazel as one of the most ancient cities of Hindostan, with a brick fortress and lofty minaret, and possessing the tomb of Sheikh Baha ud Deen, an orthodox Mahomedan saint. It appears to have been the seat of a principality so early as A.D. 1006, when it was plundered by Mahmood of Ghizni; a fate it again experienced in 1398, when captured by the army of Timour. For many years the nabob of Mooltan acknowledged subjection to the Cabul sovereign, and paid him annually a large tribute for protection. In 1806 Mooltan was attacked, captured, and plundered by the Seik raja of Lahore, Runjeet Singh, who was then compelled by famine to evacuate it; but subsequently, in 1818, established his predominance, and rendered it tributary. Besides these annoyances in 1809 this unfortunate nabob was compelled to pay tribute to the Ameers of Sinde, who, according to the Asiatic system of oppressing the falling, took advantage of his feebleness to help him down. — (*Elphinstone, Macartney, Abul Fazel, Rennell, &c.*)

Mooltan.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Budnawur, nine miles travelling distance from Wuckutghur. In 1820 it contained 400 houses, and belonged to the raja of Dhar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Mooltaye.—An extensive fortified village (in 1819) in the province of Gundwana, situated near the sources of the Tuptee, sixty-eight N.W. from Nagpoor; lat. 21° 45′ N., lon. 77° 22′ E.

Moonere (*Manir*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, forty-two miles E. by S. from Benares; lat. 25° 12′ N., lon. 83° 40′ E.

Moonghy.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the banks of the Godavery, thirty-six miles S. by E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 23′ N., lon. 75° 41′ E.

Moondlah.—A large Bheel village in the province of Malwa, belonging to the Ally Mohun Raja, from whose capital it is distant thirteen miles to the south-west.

Moonuk.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-three miles S.W. from Patiallah; lat. 29° 44′ N., lon. 77° 57′ E.

Mooriconda.—A village in the Balaghaut ceded districts, division of Curnoul, situated on the south side of the Krishna, 110 miles N. by W. from Cuddapah; lat. 15° 57′ N., lon. 78° 13′ E. The bed of the Krishna here is 1,000 feet above the level of the sea. This place is at present much reduced, but appears from the ruins remaining to have been at some period a town of greater importance. At present the fort is deserted, and the inhabitants for the most part subsist by transporting passengers across the Krishna, which is done in large circular flat baskets covered with hides, the only vessel adapted for so rocky a passage. Six miles above Mooriconda is the junction of the Toombudra with the Krishna, which, like other junctions, sungums or prayagas, is esteemed of great sanctity by the Hindoos. The waters of the Krishna are here remarkably sweet and clear, and are said to be greatly improved by those of the Toombudra, which are reckoned by water-drinkers of a superior quality. In Mooriconda there are many small places of Hindoo worship, but they scarcely deserve the name of temples, or even chapels.—(*Heyne, Voysey, &c.*)

Moorley (*Murali*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of

Jessore, of which it is the capital, sixty-two miles N.E. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 7′ N., lon. 89° 15′ E. It is also named Jessore, and is the residence of the judge and collector.

MOORLEYDUR SERAI (*Murali Dhara Serai*).—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-four miles east from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 2′ N., lon. 78° 34′ E.

MOORSAUM.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, twenty-nine miles north from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 36′ N., lon. 77° 50′ E. Until 1817 this was the head of an independent zemindary, and a notorious resort of Thugs and Buddicks, two tribes of robbers by profession. It was then, for that and other reasons, captured and dismantled; but the zemindar, Bhugwunt Singh, had his landed and personal property conceded, although he was the same individual who in 1803 had resisted Lord Lake in Sasnee with so much resolution. Moorsaum stands in the midst of a highly cultivated country, and like Hatras is a considerable commercial thoroughfare.—(*Blunt, Fullarton, &c.*)

MOORSHEDABAD.—A district in the province of Bengal, comprizing a portion of territory in the immediate vicinity of the city. In 1814 it was described by the superintendent of police as larger than Hooghly, and equal in extent to Burdwan. The magisterial jurisdiction then comprehended eighteen tannahs or police stations, and four chokeys, and the court of the judge was held at Calcapoor, seven miles distant from the city. This district, like several other of the Bengal jurisdictions, has undergone such frequent modifications that it is impossible to assign any precise limits. The Jellinghy river, by which it is intersected, is one of the most westerly branches of the Ganges, from the main stream of which it separates at the town of Jellinghy, and after an uncommonly winding course joins the Bhagirathi, or Cossimbazar river, at Nuddea; these united streams forming the Hooghly or Calcutta river. Although there is water in the Jellinghy throughout the year, it is sometimes unnavigable during two or three of the driest months.

According to reports received from the public functionaries in 1801, the cultivation of the lands had greatly increased since the commencement of the decennial settlement, a great extent of jungle having been brought under tillage. The most valuable products are silk and indigo. At the above date there was said to be only one school in the district for instruction in the Mahomedan law, while there were twenty for instruction in the Hindoo laws and customs. The total population was then estimated, including the city, at 1,020,572 persons, in the proportion of two Hindoos to one Mahomedan. The neighbourhood of Moorshedabad is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk, taffetas, both flowered and plain; and many other varieties, for inland commerce and exportation, are made in large quantities. The external appearance of the country indicates an improved state of agriculture, but none whatever in buildings for religious or domestic purposes. Individuals occasionally build a temple or dig a tank, but similar endowments of former days are going to decay, and among the natives in general no degree of opulence appears ever to tempt them to improvement in their domestic arrangements. In 1814 the jumma, or land revenue, amounted to 18,74,588 rupees; the abkarry or excise to 97,000 rupees. Until about the year 1793, the Moorshedabad district was reckoned by the natives rather salubrious; but a sad reverse has since taken place, at least in the vicinity of the city, which, whether owing to a redundant population or some more inscrutable cause, is almost every year visited by a severe epidemic.—(*J. Shakespear, Hays, 5th Report, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MOORSHEDABAD.—A city in the

province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the most sacred branch of the Ganges (named the Bhagirathi), about 120 miles above Calcutta; lat. 24° 11′N., lon. 88° 15′ E. It was originally named Mucksoosabad; but in 1704, when Moorshed Cooly Khan transferred the seat of government to this place, he changed its name to Moorshedabad. The town extends eight miles along both sides of the river, and was never fortified except by an occasional rampart in 1742, during the Maharatta invasion. The buildings are in general bad, and the old palace of the nabobs, named the Laul Baugh, so insignificant as to be passed without observation; but to the north of that range the nabob has recently erected a lofty modern European house (named the Aina Mahal), which now forms a conspicuous object viewed from the river. With the exception of the chowk and the streets leading to it, the city of Moorshedabad may be described as a vast assemblage of mud and straw huts, built without the least regard to order, choked up on all sides with trees and vegetation of all sorts, interspersed on the side next the river with a few brick houses, and a considerable number of paltry mosques, being on the whole, with reference to its size and population, probably the meanest capital in Hindostan.

Moorshedabad is a place of great inland traffic, and the river is seen constantly covered with boats, which are examined at the custom-house. From October to May the Bhagirathi is almost dry, when much of the traffic is conducted at Bogwangola, a port on the Ganges, about nine miles from Moorshedabad. In 1813 a canal was dug between the Bhagirathi and great Ganges, partly to ameliorate the unhealthiness of the town and adjacent villages, by maintaining a permanent stream of wholesome water, and attracting a current of fresh air; but notwithstanding these exertions the city never recovered its reputation for salubrity. The Mooty Jeel, or pearl lake, in this neighbourhood, is one of the windings of the former channel of the Cossimbazar river. During the reign of Aliverdi Khan a palace was erected on it, and ornamented with pillars of black marble brought from the ruins of Gour, the ancient capital of Bengal; but in 1819 a terrace, with some fine arches of the marble, was all of the edifice that remained. In 1814 the whole number of houses was estimated at 30,000, which, allowing five and a half individuals to a house, would give a total population of 165,000 souls.

Moorshedabad became the capital of Bengal in A.D. 1704, when the seat of government was removed from Dacca by the nabob Jaffier Khan (named also Moorshed Cooly Khan), and it continued to be the metropolis until the conquest of Bengal by the British in 1757, when it was virtually, although not nominally, superseded by Calcutta. Until 1771 it continued the head station of the collector-general and revenue board, being more central than Calcutta, but in that year they were both transferred to the latter place.

The Nabob Jaffier Khan, who first made the city his capital, was born of a Brahmin, bought while an infant, and educated in Persia in the Mahomedan faith. He was appointed soubahdar of Bengal by Aurengzebe, and on his death, with the assistance of Juggeth Seth the banker, he purchased the continuance of his office; besides which he discomfited two other soubahdars sent by the court of Delhi to expel him, although he remitted the annual tribute with great punctuality. He died in 1725, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Shujah ud Dowlah, who reigned until 1739, and on his decease his son,

Serferauz Khan, ascended the throne, but was dethroned and killed after a short reign of one year and two months, by

Aliverdi Khan, who after an active and eventful reign, died in 1756, and was succeeded by his grandson

Seraje ud Dowlah. Two months after his accession, this prince at-

acked and captured Calcutta; but next year was defeated at Plassey by Colonel Clive, and soon afterwards assassinated, in 1757, by Meer Meeran, the son of his successor,

Meer Jaffier Khan, who, on account of his incapacity, was dethroned by the British in 1760, and

Meer Cossim Ali Khan raised to the throne. In 1763 this Nabob was expelled by the British after much hard fighting, and his predecessor Meer Jaffier reinstated. After reigning one year, in 1764, he was succeeded by his oldest existing son,

Nudjam ud Dowlah, who in 1766 died of the small-pox, when his brother

Seif ud Dowlah ascended the throne, and died in 1769, when the famine prevailed, and an epidemical distemper raged with much violence.

Mubaric ud Dowlah was the next, and had his allowances reduced from twenty-four lacks per annum to sixteen lacks in 1772. He died in 1796, and was succeeded by his son

Nazim ul Muluck, who quitted this world in 1810, and was succeeded by his son

Seid Zin ud Deen Ali Khan, then seventeen years of age, who died in 1821, after a reign of eleven years and a few months.

Besides being the residence of the native prince, Moorshedabad is the head-quarters of a court of circuit, having the following subordinate districts, viz. 1st. Boglipoor; 2d. Purneah; 3d. Dinagepoor; 4th. Rungpoor; 5th. Rajeshahy; 6th. Birboom; 7th. The city and district of Moorshedabad.—(*Scott, Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Moota Moola.—A river in the province of Aurungabad, composed of the Moota and the Moola. The Moota river joins the Moola at Poona, their union forming the Moota Moola, which flows into the Beema, which afterwards forms a junction with the Krishna. By this route, during the rainy season, a journey by water in a light canoe might be effected from within seventy-five miles distance of the western coast of India, to the bay of Bengal.

Mootejerna (*Mutijharna*).—A waterfall in the province of Bengal between Rajmahal and Siclygully, from which it is distant about twelve miles. It is three miles inland from the Ganges, and of very difficult access, the only approach being by a rugged and narrow pathway through the thickest jungle. The scenery of this dell is very wild and striking; but the fall only exists during the height of the rains.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Moplays (*Mapilas*).—See Paniany.

Moradabad.—A district in the province of Delhi, formed of the western portion of Rohilcund, and situated between the twenty-eighth and thirtieth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is separated from the province of Serinagur or Gurwal by a range of mountains through which rushes the Ganges at Hurdwar; on the south it has the districts of Bareily and Alighur; to the east it has the Kumaon mountains and district of Bareily; and to the west is separated by the Ganges from the districts of North and South Saharunpoor. In 1808 Moradabad, exclusive of the woods and forests contiguous to the hills, was estimated to contain 5,727,381 large begas, distributed in the following proportions, viz.

	Begas.
Land under cultivation ...	1,710,443
Lands uncultivated, but fit for tillage, &c............	2,093,437
Lands not fit for tillage ...	727,860
Lands stated to be held rent-free	1,195,640
Total	5,727,381

The above computation, however, having been made from native documents, falls short of the truth about 700,000 begas. The total surface, according to Col. Colebrooke's map, may be estimated at 6,800,000 begas. Even the tract under the hills is ca-

pable of cultivation, and various spots are in fact cultivated; the quantity also stated as unfit for tillage is of great utility as pasture.

The pergunnahs of Cossipoor, Rooderpoor, Thakoordwara, Reher, Nujibabad, Seercote, Afzulghur, and Surkurrah, as also the northern parts of Nuggeenah, contain extensive tracts of rich land which are not cultivated. One obstacle to their complete improvement is the insalubrity of the climate, owing to the vicinity of the hills; another is the absence of population. The soil is naturally moist, and in most parts the tilled lands, if it be required, can be irrigated; dry weather therefore in these tracts does not injure the crops, but the reverse, as it permits the fields to be ploughed and sown to greater advantage. If a greater quantity of this sort of land were cultivated, the supply of grain would be greater during times of general scarcity occasioned by drought. Of the remaining pergunnahs those bordering on the Ganges are productive, but liable to inundation.

The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are sugar and cotton. The planting of the sugar-cane has progressively increased since 1803, and the demand for it is unusually great, both in the Doab and across the Jumna, the culture of the plant being well understood in Rohilcund. The quality of the sugar, especially about Kerutpoor and Nuggeena, nearly equals that of the Havannah. In 1808 the price here of chenee or fine sugar, was only eight rupees per maund. Wheat is another considerable article, and its exportation constant; but the main food of the peasantry is derived from joar, bajera, and some smaller crops. The population of the Moradabad district in 1808 was estimated by Mr. Lloyd as follows, viz.

Six principal cities from 20,000 to 50,000 inhabitants each	180,000
Ten large towns at 7,000	70,000
Ten smaller at 4,000......	40,000
9,430 villages at 120 each	1,131,000
Total	1,421,000

The principal towns are Moradabad, Rampoor, Nujibabad, Daranuggur, Nuggeena, and Sumbul.

During the Patan sway, the territory they occupied, which received in consequence the name of Rohilcund, was in a highly flourishing state; the falling-off may be dated from the Maharatta invasion, from the desolating effects of which, rendered permanent by other causes, the Moradabad district has not yet entirely recovered. The invasion of these provinces was so long protracted as to cause a revolution in the agriculture of the country, besides occasioning the destruction of a large portion of the inhabitants and of their dwellings; and after the annexation of the province to Oude, the revenues being administered in the worst possible manner, the cultivators and farmers were in many parts in a constant state of insubordination. It was transferred to the British government in 1801, but not formed into a separate jurisdiction until 1804, since which period the progressive increase of the revenue has been more general and considerable than in any of the ceded districts, except Bareily. The amount of jumma or land assessment to the revenue in 1813 and 1814 was 25,46,599 rupees, and the large proportion of land which still remains to be brought into cultivation, promises a large augmention of the future revenue; which would probably be further increased by a revision of the tenures on which the rent-free lands (one-fifth of the whole) are held, a large proportion having originated in frauds on the public revenue, when the intended cession to the British was generally known.

Prior to 1809 this district was overrun by formidable bands of gang-robbers, the leaders of which were entitled more to the name of rebels than robbers, their strength and means of resistance keeping the ordinary police establishments wholly at bay. Many of the gangs had subsisted in the country long prior to the cession of Rohilcund by the Na-

bob of Oude, and the command regularly descended as a matter of property to the next legitimate heir. At this period one mounted gang was so effective as to be able to cut its way through a detachment of regular troops commanded by European officers, which had been sent to apprehend them. These depredators from long practice possessed a perfect knowledge of the intricate jungles, and of the numerous fords of the Ganges, which enabled them to cross and return without molestation, and the inhabitants were so intimidated by the ferocity of their revenge that they could not be brought to act against them. One gang could muster 400 men, mostly Jauts, and it is well known with what alacrity a force of this description, or any force intent on plunder, could formerly be augmented in Hindostan. By the great exertions of the British magistrates, and more especially of Mr. Oswald, these bands, with their leaders, had prior to 1814 been nearly extirpated.

These banditti consisted mostly of the Jaut and Aheer tribes, who generally are husbandmen or common labourers, of Mewaties and other persons calling themselves sepoys, and of the poorer classes of landholders, who became robbers for the sake of plunder, from being related to leaders of gangs, or in consequence of their zemindary having gone to ruin. Between the Jaut and the Goojer castes there exists an animosity of such duration that its origin cannot be traced, but it appears to be utterly implacable, descending from generation to generation. A Jaut leader of banditti is consequently sure to find refuge and succour from the whole Jaut tribe, so long as he restrains his depredations and cruelties to the property and persons of their antagonists.

The police of Moradabad labours under considerable disadvantage from the contiguity of the independent jaghire of Rampoor, within the limits of which robbers and other public offenders can evade the pursuit of justice. The Mewaty and Aheer tribes also dwelling on the north-western border had long been accustomed to predatory descents on the plains, which they ravaged, pillaging the villages, and driving off the cattle. Military force had often been employed against them, but, owing to the insalubrity of the jungles and other impediments, always without effect, until Mr. Seton tried the plan of conciliating the chiefs by assigning them lands and money, and employing them and their adherents to protect the country they had been habituated to plunder. At first they accepted the occupation rather reluctantly, but gradually became attached to it, by which expedient the district was relieved at a very small expense from an evil which greatly annoyed the inhabitants and injured the revenue.—(*C. Lloyd, Oswald, Sir E. Colebrooke, Guthrie, &c.*)

Moradabad.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, of which it is the capital, forty-eight miles N.W. from Bareily; lat. 28° 51′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E. This place stands on the western bank of the Ramgunga, and though no longer the seat of a mint, is still one of the most populous and flourishing commercial towns in the upper provinces. It does not contain any public or religious edifice of the slightest importance, but the chowk or grand market-place, and another adjoining street named the cutterah, both of modern date, will bear a comparison with the most spacious bazars of Hindostan. The other parts, though thickly populated, are meanly built. The Ramgunga here has a sluggish current, shallow, and fordable in several places.—(*Fullarton, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Moradnagur.—A small town in the province of Delhi, district of Merut, twenty-two miles W.S.W. from the town of Merut.

Morassa.—The cusbah or head of a pergunnah in Gujerat which was formerly much more populous,

but in 1820 did not contain more than 6,000 inhabitants, and yielded a revenue of only 6,000 rupees. A large proportion of the villages are here inhabited by a race of (formerly) turbulent Coolies, accustomed to plunder friend and foe, but the rout and slaughter of a considerable body in 1819 at Lohar, spread such dismay among the Mewassies, that the revenue settlements were afterwards completed in tranquillity. Lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 73° 20′ E.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Moreishwar.—A town of considerable extent in the province of Aurungabad, thirty-four miles S.E. from Poona; lat. 18° 16′ N., lon. 74° 26′ E. At this place there is a very handsome dome, erected over a small square building in the following manner:—a mound of earth is first raised the intended height and shape of the dome or arch, over which the stones are placed, and when completed on the outside the support is removed. The inhabitants have but little knowledge of mechanics, in consequence of which, when a large stone is to be raised, it is dragged up a slope of earth raised for the purpose by main force, and in this manner it is probable that the Egyptians raised their enormous architectural masses.—(*Moor, &c.*)

Morevee.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, and capital of the Muchoo Kaunta, or tract of country lying along the river Muchoo, and situated about twenty-one miles south of the Runn; lat. 29° 39′ N., lon. 70° 58′ E. The town and lands attached were granted to the ancestors of the present family (a younger branch of the Cutch Row's) in the thirty-seventh year of the reign of the Emperor Acber, in return for the surrender of the unfortunate Sultan Muzuffer of Gujerat.

Morewara.—A town in the province of Gujerat, nineteen miles N.W. from Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 48′ N., lon. 71° 15′ E. The surrounding country was formerly much infested by predatory Coolies, now unwillingly converted to honest men.

Morni.—A fort among the lower hills of Northern Hindostan, between the Sutuleje and Jumna, belonging to a Mahomedan chief, who also possessed lands at the base; lat. 30° 41′ N., lon. 77° 4′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 2,713 feet.

It is curious to observe in the midst of the hills, and surrounded by Rajpoot princes, a small Mahomedan principality yielding a revenue of 5,000 rupees per annum. The fort of Morni was built by a Seid, whose descendants in 1814 occupied a fort named Kotaha, which the possessor, Meer Jaffier, contrived to maintain against all the efforts of the Seiks. On the arrival of the British army in the hills he joined Sir David Ochterlony with a body of irregulars, in consequence of which co-operation the fort of Morni was restored to him.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Mortezanagur. — The Mogul name for Guntoor, which see.

Mortizabad.—A large division of the Bejapoor province, situated principally between the seventeenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the western ghaut mountains. Being situated within that chain, the surface has a considerable elevation above the sea, and is diversified by irregular hills and vallies, many of the first studded with fortresses, now mostly dismantled. It is traversed in its whole extent by the Krishna river in its early stage, and also contains its source at Mahabillysir. The southern portion of Mortizabad abounds in the black vegetable soil so prevalent throughout Malwa and the Deccan, and is for the most part highly cultivated. The villages are numerous, well shaded by trees, and generally surrounded by a wall having a stone base, but mud superstructure, in which manner the huts within are also formed. The principal towns are Sattara, Merritch, Keraur, Tajgaon, and Sanglee.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Morty Isle (*or Morintay Isle*).—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the north-eastern extremity of Gilolo, and comprehended principally between the second and third degrees of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at sixty-five miles, by eighteen miles the average breadth. This island has a pleasing appearance when viewed from the sea, the land rising gently from the beach to a considerable height in the centre, but without any abrupt or precipitous elevation. The country is thinly inhabited, but is said to abound with sago-trees, to cut down which for the pith and flour, parties go from Gilolo. The sultan of Ternate formerly claimed the sovereignty of this island.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Morung (*mayuranca, remarkable for peacocks*).—A large district in Northern Hindostan, belonging to the Nepaulese, the limits of which have never been clearly defined. As a general description, however, it may be considered as extending in the low country from the Cosi to the Teesta, although the level tract between the Mutchee and the Teesta, that formerly belonged to Sikkim, has, since the conclusion of the war in 1816, been restored to that principality. On the low hills Morung stretches from the Conki to the Cosi, but it includes scarcely any high tracts, and of the Himalaya nothing at all. Before 1816, the southernmost point at which Morung touched the Rungpoor district was Sanyasicotta, from which spot for a distance of five miles the river Mahananda formed the boundary line between the two countries, after which the Nepaulese territories crossed that river, and intermixed at Debgong in the most irregular manner. The line of demercation, which even in an open country is merely preserved by the memory of the inhabitants, soon becomes quite evanescent in a thick saul jungle, from which point the common boundary was keenly contested throughout the course of the river Teesta. Suroop Deo, the zemindar of Bykantpoor, laid claim to the whole extent of this wilderness, and the Gorkha local authorities, with equal pertinacity, asserted a right to the whole forest down to its southern extremity. To settle disputed pretensions of this description by native testimony has been always found quite impracticable, as either side can lead forth a cloud of witnesses ready to swear to the truth of any fact whatever. Particular circumstances, however, tended to substantiate the zemindar's claim, his family having long resided in the centre of the tract claimed by the Gorkhas; but after all it is to be presumed that a wild space situated on the frontier of either territory has frequently changed masters, and during periods of hostility been occupied by the most powerful.

In its physical and geographical circumstances Morung entirely resembles the lower belt of Nepaul. The Terriani, or low country, assists to support immense herds of cattle bred in the Purneah district, which must otherwise perish during the heats of the dry season, when almost every vegetable production (including the bamboo) is withered and parched up, and the atmosphere glows with intense heat. Even then the woods at the base of the mountains retain some degree of moisture, and the rains of the spring are commonly early and copious, hastening a strong and succulent vegetation. A great deal of timber is exported from hence to Calcutta, the Morung producing many trees, valuable for their scent and the polish they are capable of taking, as well as for strength and durability; but the saul, or *shorea robusta*, is almost the only one much in request. The cutting season lasts from the middle of December to the middle of April, when the forests become dreadfully unhealthy. Europeans who purchase floats of timber in the Morung for the Calcutta market, are greatly imposed on unless they personally accompany the rafts. During their progress south many floats are lost, and only part

of the timber recovered, while the original logs as they pass the various towns on the route gradually diminish in size, so that even when the number despatched is delivered complete, their dimensions, owing to fraudulent exchanges on the road, differs very much from their measurement at the place of embarkation.

The most remarkable places in this district are Vijayapoor; Samrigari, a small fort; Chaudanda, in remote times a seat of government, but now deserted; Sorabaugh, and Chattra. The market-places are twenty-four, and the custom-houses are frequently transferred from one place to another. In 1809 the Morung was separated into three fiscal divisions, each in charge of a deputy-collector, and yielded to the Gorkhas from every source a total revenue of 1,31,425 rupees. The duties called sayer include a capitation on artists, a duty on the sale of oxen and buffaloes, on marriages, on contracts with concubines, on grain exported, on all things sold in bazars, and on adulterers.

The inhabitants of Morung to the east of Vijayapoor are chiefly Cooch or Rajbungsies, who are considered the same tribe, live on the plain, and speak the dialect of Bengal; on the lower hills are many of the Mech tribe; in the western parts most of the cultivators are of the Gangayi caste, who speak the dialect of Mithila (Tirhoot), and adhere to the doctrines of purity as established in that country; on the hills the people are mostly Khas, or a mixed breed between the mountain Hindoos and the natives, with some Rajpoots and Magars, which last have been recently introduced. No event of importance is recorded in the history of this state until the reign of a raja named Vijaya Narrain, who is said to have come originally from Camroop, and having subdued this state, assumed to himself the title of conqueror of the earth. He also built Vijayapoor, the capital; but having put to death a mountain chief of Kiraut origin, under the pretence that he (the mountain chief), being an impure beef-eating monster, had presumed to defile a Hindoo woman, the son of the beef-eater expelled the raja, and established his own dynasty. According to tradition, the Sikkim raja made many conquests in this quarter; but the whole was overrun by the Gorkhas in 1774, when Agom Singh, the reigning chief of the Kiraut family, sought refuge in the British territories. By the treaty of peace concluded with the Nepaulese in 1815, and ratified in 1816, that state was allowed to retain Morung, with the exception of the segment situated to the east of the Mutchee, a small river thirty-five miles west of the Teesta.—(*F. Buchanan, Sisson, &c.*)

Mose Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, about thirty miles in circumference, situated due north from Timorlaut, and about the one hundred and thirty-second degree of east longitude.

Mote.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles E. by N. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 45 N., lon. 78° 54′ E.

Moujghur.—A town in the province of Mooltan, forty miles S.E. from Bahawulpoor; lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 71° 57′ E. This town is enclosed by high walls and towers, and contains a mosque, placed over the gateway; as also a tomb with a cupola, adorned with painted tiles; but the fort, as a place of defence, is small and weak. Water is found here in considerable abundance.

Moulmein (*Mola Myaing*).—A station in British Martaban, which Sir Arch. Campbell, in 1825, fixed on as an eligible spot for the site of a military cantonment; lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 97° 38′ E. It stands on the left bank of the river, twenty-seven miles higher up than Amherst, and nearly opposite to the Burmese town of Martaban, and appears at one time to have been the seat of an encampment. The banks rise by a gradual ascent to the height of 200 feet above

the river, and are open to the sea-breeze in front, while inland extensive plains separate it from the mountains. Above Moulmein detached rocks are frequent in the plains, and contain some spacious caverns, which appear to have been places of worship. One of these rocks, by its perpendicular walls, confines the river Attran for several hundred yards on its right bank; and about the middle it is penetrated by a branch of the river, which flows quite through under a magnificent arch. This river, the Attran, is said to be navigable for fifty miles above Moulmein for vessels of 300 tons burthen; and besides other fish contains abundance of the celebrated mangoe fish, which continue in roe from December to August inclusive, or nine months; whereas in the Hooghly three months is the utmost limit of their season. In 1827 this station contained about 3,000 inhabitants, chiefly camp followers and emigrants from Ava and Pegu. In the same year the Diana steam-boat reached Amherst in twenty-four hours from Rangoon, and next day ascended the river Saluen (or Martaban) to Moulmein in three hours and a half.

From hence to Praw Tounghy, or the three pagodas, which mark the Siamese frontier in this quarter, the direct distance is ninety-four miles, the travelling distance 134 miles, the country consisting mostly of jungle mixed with teak-trees, some of a good size, but others stunted. The surface is undulating and hilly, but not mountainous; the population thinly scattered, but abounding with herds of elephants. Among some coco-nut trees is the source of the Yayboo Kéuwp, the water of which boils up from the bottom of a circular rocky basin. Its action has petrified the adjacent soil, and all the betel-nut trees in its vicinity have perished. At the margin the thermometer rose to 122° Fahrenheit; but it is supposed to be much hotter towards the centre.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

MOUNGHUA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on a small bund or lake, twenty-one miles N.N.W. from Teary; lat. 25° 1′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

MOUNT DILLY.—A hill in the Malabar province, which is separated from the mainland by salt-water creeks, and forms a remarkable promontory and sea-mark, possessing a most extensive view. The native name is Yishy Malay, but our seamen call it Mount Dilly; lat. 12° 2′ N., lon. 75° 16′ E. The beach here forms a projecting point to the south-west, and embraces the whole mountain. On the extremity of this point is a rocky hill, separated from the range by a ravine, on which stands a square fort with two bastions towards the west, and an enclosed high tower towards the north-east. The rock round from the N.W. to the S.W. is steep, and washed by the surf at the base; the upper part forms a smooth glacis on all sides. From the top of Mount Dilly peak, which was a principal station in Col. Lambton's survey, Cananore may be distinctly seen.—(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

MOUNT MOIRA. — A remarkable peak in Northern Hindostan, near the head of the Ganges, elevated 22,792 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 30° 51′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

MOUTAPILLY (*Mutapali*). — A town situated at the southern extremity of the Northern Circars; lat. 15° 28′ N., lon. 80° 12′ E. A considerable coasting trade is carried on from hence in craft navigated by the natives.

MOUTZA.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated on the banks of a large lake or meeaa, twenty-two miles N.W. from Umerapoora; lat. 22° 3′ N., lon. 96° 2′ E.

MOW (*Mao*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, ceded by the nabob of Oude in 1801, at which period it was a town of considerable commerce; lat. 25° 57′ N., lon. 83° 37′ E., fifty-three miles N.E. from Benares.

MOW (*Mao*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated about

seventy-six miles S.W. from Benares, and the seat of a chief of the Singhranee tribe; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 81° 56′ E.

Mow (*Mao*).—A town in the province of Malwa, ten miles south of Indore, and 2,019 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 22° 33′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. In 1820 this was not a town, but merely a large cantonment, situated on a conkar eminence, environed by streams of water, and resting on a back-ground of mountains, which extend to the Nerbudda, while another ridge of hills to the north separates the valley from that of Indore. In 1820 the large force at this place was not regularly housed, and the mixture of tents with temporary huts and small bungalows gave the scene a very animated and military character. At Mow there is a permanent brigade stationed, and another at Neemutch towards Odeypoor. connecting the grand cantonments at the city of Ajmeer with Malwa and Gujerat. In 1822 the barracks here were completed, and a considerable fortress was erecting. In 1824 the civil and military establishments were transferred to Bombay.

Mow, as a military cantonment, is of great importance, as the troops stationed here are alike convenient to Western Malwa, South Rajpootana, and the eastern frontier of Gujerat. Its distance through the latter is not more than 300 miles from Bombay; from Surat, by the Soneghur pass, about 200 miles; and from Broach (whence it is supplied with stores) the distance is — miles; and all heavy substances can be carried more than half the way by water.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

Mow.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-six miles west from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E.

Mowah.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, thirty-seven miles east from Patna; lat. 25° 34′ N., lon. 85° 50′ E.

Mowah.—A frontier village belonging to Jeypoor, in the province of Agra. This place has a large mud fortress; and on a hill about two miles distant is another, and apparently a more considerable castle. Indeed, until lately a fort in this quarter of Hindostan was as necessary to the husbandman as a barn in England. —(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Moyaur River.—A rapid mountain stream (impassable during the rains for a great part of its course) which rises in the Western Ghauts, between Malabar and Coimbatoor, and joins the Bhavani near a small village named Poongaur.

Moyeen.—A town of India beyond the Ganges, situated on the east bank of the Irawady river, in the Casi Shan country, thirty-five miles to the south-west from Bhanmo, or Bamoo; lat. 24° N., lon. 96° 40′ E.

Mringkan.—A hill village in Arracan, not far from Talak, principally inhabited by mountaineer Kayns, whose language, dress, and manners differ essentially from those of the plains. The females make a particularly grotesque appearance, from the peculiarity of their dress, and the extraordinary manner in which their faces are tattooed, giving to the face the semblance of being covered by a mask.

Muckundra.—A village in the province of Malwa about twenty-eight miles S.S.E. from Kotah; lat. 24° 50′ N., lon. 75° 55′ E. This place stands in a valley, nearly circular, three-fourths of a mile in diameter, and surrounded by steep hills, and only accessible by an opening to the south and another to the north, each defended by a wall and gate; but the latter in 1819 was in ruins. There is also an old fort above the village, the whole belonging to the Kotah raja, who keeps a garrison here. Muckundra is the only pass within many miles, through a ridge of mountains that extend east and west, separating the province of Malwa from Harowty, a country of the Hara tribe, in Ajmeer. The road from Harowty

winds among low hills, with scarcely any perceptible ascent.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MUCKUNDGUNGE (*Mucundaganj*).—A village in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 114 miles S. by E. from Patna; lat. 23° 57′ N., lon. 85° 25′ E. Considerable quantities of iron ore are obtained by smelting a black sand found in the mountain torrents, about fifteen miles S.E. of Hazarybaugh.

MUCKWANPOOR (*Macwanpura*).—A district in Northern Hindostan, belonging to the Nepaulese, formerly much more extensive, but now limited to the tract immediately south of the Nepaul valley and San Cosi river. One half of Muckwanpoor is in the level country called the Terriani, and in its physical aspect exactly resembles the low country of Morung, Saptari, and Mahatari, the whole belt being about twenty miles in breadth. In this space there are a few scattered small hills and much poor land, overgrown with trees and bushes of little value; but there is also a large proportion of rich land, and on the whole the soil is much better than that of the British territories immediately adjacent. Its productions are nearly the same as the northern parts of Purneah, except that being less cultivated there are more wild beasts, especially elephants and rhinoceroses. The breed of the former is uncommonly bad, and it has been remarked that each of them has a toe on some of its feet very much lengthened, which gives the foot an unseemly appearance. Before the conquest of this tract by the Gorkhas, the native petty rajas, being much afraid of their neighbours, did not encourage the clearing of the low land, but on the contrary fostered the jungles, and contented themselves in a great measure with the natural productions of the forests, the timber, elephants, and pasture. Even then, however, many rich spots were occupied and rendered productive; but they were so concealed in the depths of the forest as to come little under inspection. The Gorkhas, more confident in their own strength, have cleared much of the country, and are able to export considerable quantities of grain; but much remains still to be done. The tobacco produced is said to be of an excellent flavour, and the raising of the reddish cotton-wool on the increase. The climate is inferior in point of salubrity to that of the contiguous British provinces, but seems entirely owing to its being less cleared and cultivated.

Bounding the plain above-mentioned to the north is a region of nearly equal width, extending from the Gunduck to the Conki, but only a portion of it can be considered as belonging to Muckwanpoor. This consists of small hills rising in gradations towards the north, and watered by small rivers issuing from the southern face of the lofty mountains to which these hills gradually unite. In many places they are rocky, and abound with incrustations formed by the depositions of calcareous matter; but it is said there are not any exuviæ found of marine animals. The calcareous matter has formed itself into crusts covering the surface of the rocks, or has assumed the form of lichens and similar plants that it has covered. The hills on both sides abound with pines, and this is the most convenient quarter from whence to procure them. The most remarkable places of strength are the fort of Muckwanpoor, where the rajas formerly dwelt; Harriapoor commanding the Bogmutty; Seedly and Cheesapany, commanding two passes through the Lama Dangra mountains; and Champoor on the San Cosi; but in the whole district there is not one considerable town or mine of importance. At Hethaura, Seedly, and Becchiaco customs are collected, but they are not marts for goods, which are principally exchanged at the markets on the plain.

The population on the plains consists principally of the Tharu and Danwar castes, the chief tribe on the hills being the Murmi. About the different forts are some Rajpoots,

many of the spurious breed named Khas, a great number of Magars, and but few Kirants. The inhabitants of the Terriani or low country entirely resemble in their circumstances, language, dress, persons, and customs, the Hindoos of the northern portions of Bahar. The peasantry are extremely nasty, and apparently indigent. Their huts are small, dirty, and very ill calculated to keep out the cold winds of the winter season, while their clothing consists of some cotton rags, neither bleached, dyed, or apparently washed. They are a small hard-favoured people, and by no means fairer than the inhabitants of Bengal, who are comparatively in better circumstances; yet these miserable tribes have plenty of spare land and pay few taxes.

According to native traditions, a Khetri dynasty was established at Garsamaran (the ruins of what are still visible) in A.D. 1089, which terminated about 1315, in consequence of the progress made by the Mahomedan kings of Delhi, then a warlike race. A new dynasty of Rajpoots succeeded in the tract now called Muckwanpoor, the most remarkable of whom was Raja Lohanga, who subdued and expelled so many of the petty chiefs that he became paramount over a large portion of the country now forming the Nepaulese empire. After his death the kingdom being greatly weakened by treachery and internal dissensions, it was reduced to confined limits, although the Mahomedans for many years subsequent to the conquest of Bengal, did not take possession of the tract at present forming the northern portions of the Sarun, Tirhoot, and Purneah districts. This occurred about the middle of the eighteenth century, and in 1762 Goorgheen Khan, the Nabob Meer Cossim's Armenian general, endeavoured to complete the conquest of the whole by an attempt on the fortress of Muckwanpoor, but did not succeed. After the failure of the expedition against Nepaul under Captain Kinloch, in 1765, that officer of Muckwanpoor, for the purpose of reimbursing the expenses of the war; but after retaining the Terriani an making the collections for two years it was given up to the Gorkha raj of Nepaul, who had established hi authority over Muckwanpoor by th expulsion of the raja.

After the termination of the Ne paulese war in 1815, the Britis government (in pursuance of th general system of restoring the exiled hill chiefs to such territories conquered from the Gorkhas as might not be necessary or expedient to retain) determined to effect the restoration of the ancient ruling family in the person of Raja Oodee Pertaub Singh, its legitimate representative. This young man and his brother, with some faithful retainers, had resided for several years within the British district of Bettiah, where they subsisted on the produce of a village granted them by Raja Beer Kishwar Singh. In process of time, by the extinction of the other branches of the family among whom the Muckwanpoor principality had been divided, Raja Oodee Pertaub had become heir to the whole inheritance, which originally comprehended the lower ranges of hills from the Gunduck eastward to the Teesta, including the Terriani or low-land of Muckwanpoor, and part of that belonging to Morung. When war with the Gorkha dynasty commenced, Raja Oodee Pertaub was encouraged to raise a corps of Kirauts, and to exert himself in any way calculated to promote the attainment of the common object; but owing to the long period of time that had elapsed since his ancestors were deprived of the sovereignty, no beneficial consequence of any importance resulted. The restoration therefore of this chief to any portion of his territory was not obligatory, but as the failure of his exertions were more owing to events which he could not control, than to any deficiency of zeal, the British government was disposed to admit his claim to consideration, and to

sufficient to maintain him in decency and comfort; and in a political point of view it appeared desirable to establish a friendly and independent power between the British territories and those of Nepaul. The arrangements relating to this establishment were in progress in 1816, but there is reason to believe that owing to the pertinacity of the Gorkha negociators they never were completed.—(*F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

MUCKWANPOOR.—A fortress in Northern Hindostan, the capital of the preceding district, situated on a high hill about seventeen miles south from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 27′ N., lon. 85° 1′ E. It is a place of considerable strength, and held of importance by the Nepaulese, as its possession commands a large portion of the Terriani. In 1792, when the Gorkhas were hard pressed by the Chinese army from Tibet, the regent and some of the principal chiefs deposited a great part of their most valuable property in this stronghold.—(*Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

MUDDEE.—A small village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the banks of the Runn, about ten miles S.E. from Juggeth or Dwaraca. This strange morass (the Runn), viewed from hence at a distance, appears covered with water, but when approached, the deception is discovered to proceed from a thick coat of salt as white as snow.

MUDDUNGHUR.—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, eighty miles S.S.E. from Bombay, and ten miles E.S.E. from Fort Victoria.

MUDEENGHUR.—A town in the province of Lahore, thirty miles N.N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 31° 40′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E., 6,169 feet above the level of the sea.

MUDGUL (*Mudgala*).—A small district in the province of Bejapoor, situated to the south of the Krishna, being comprehended between that river and the Toombudra. Its surface is for the most part undulating, with little cultivation, and naked of trees, except occasionally a tract of thin baubool jungle. The southern portion, however, is hilly, and more pleasing to the eye. The inhabitants in 1820 were mostly collected within walled villages, built chiefly of stone but thinly cultivated. This tract belongs partly to the Nizam and partly to the British government; but its geography has not yet been accurately delineated. Mudgul is a considerable town belonging to the Nizam; stands in lat. 16° 2′ N., lon. 76° 26′ E., fifty-five miles north from Bijanagur. It was ravaged by the Mahomedans so early as A.D. 1312, during the reign of the Delhi emperor, Alla ud Deen.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

MUDMESUR TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-two miles N.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 37′ N., lon. 79° 11′ E.

MUGANAYAKANA COTAY.—A village in the province of Mysore, district of Hagalwadi; lat. 13° 8′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E. During the war of 1790 it was besieged for two months by a force consisting of 2,000 of Purseram Bhow's Maharattas, with one cannon, which they fired several times, but they never succeeded in hitting the place. In A.D. 1800 it contained about 200 houses, and was fortified with a mud wall.

MUGHS.—See ARRACAN.

MUGROO.—A fortified post in the province of Lahore, district of Mundi, twenty-seven miles E.N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 21° 39′ N., lon. 77° 15′ E.

MUHRAGAUN.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, sixteen miles S.S.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 25′ N., lon. 79° 35′ E.

MUHUL.—A town in the province of Lahore, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 31° 40′ N, lon. 76° 40′ E.

MUKRANA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, about thirty-five miles N.W. from the city of Ajmeer. This place is remarkable in Upper

Hindostan for the fineness of its marble, much of the white being transported to distant places. The grain, however, would be considered coarse in Europe, and would not suit the statuary.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

MUKSEE.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Jonkur, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and contained 500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MUKTINATH.—The Narayani river (a contributary stream to the Gunduck) rises near the perennial snow, from the warm sources of Muktinath, a celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan, situated in lat. 29° 9′ N., lon. 83° 18′ E., about eighty miles north of the frontiers of the Gorucpoor district. The usual love of fable has multiplied these sources to 1,000 in number, but an intelligent native, who had visited the place, reduces them to seven, the most remarkable being the Agnicoond, or fire spring, which is in a temple where it issues from among stones, accompanied by a flame that rises a few inches, and although not copious, is continual. The water falls immediately into a well or cistern about two feet wide, and the whole appears from description entirely to resemble that of Seetacoond in Chittagong; that is to say, the water has no connexion with a subterraneous fire, the flame being occasioned by the combustion of an inflammable air issuing from the crevices of a rock, over which the water has been artificially conducted.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MULAREE.—A village in Northern Hindostan, situated on the left side of the Dauli river, twenty-two miles east from Bhadrinath temple; lat. 30° 40′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E., 10,290 feet above the level of the sea.

MULAYNE.—A large village in the province of Oude, fifty miles N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 3′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E. The inhabitants are numerous, but the place is mean and irregular, consisting almost entirely of mud huts.

MULÇAPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty-seven miles west from Merritch; lat. 16° 54′ N., lon. 74° 6′ E.

MULCHAND KALANDY.—A small building for the accommodation of travellers in the province of Mooltan, district of Tatta, ten miles east from Corachie; lat. 24° 50′ N., lon. 67° 27′ E. The surrounding country is a hard sandy soil, bounded by rocky hills to the north, and covered with clusters of the milk bush, a shrub called lye by the Sindees, and a small prickly shrub, the whole abounding with hares, jackals, and partridges. At this place there is some good water. Five miles farther on, approaching Tatta, there is a choultry erected by Hajee Omar, and near to it a well of excellent water 140 feet deep, dug to supply travellers, an act of charity duly estimated in this parched and sultry region. The country all round this choultry is so hard, and the water so remote from the surface, that the labourers must for a long time have been supplied with water brought from a distance, before they could reach that they were in search of.—(*Smith, Maxfield, &c.*)

MULHARA (*Mulahara*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, ten miles north from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 34′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E.

MULHARGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles north from Mundessor; lat. 24° 17′ N., lon. 75° 3′ E.

MULKAMAROOR.—A town and small district in the province of Mysore, forty-one miles N.N.E. from Chitteldroog; lat. 14° 41′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E. The tract of country in this vicinity is still remarkably ill-delineated in the best maps.

MULKAN.—A town in the province of Lahore, ninety-five miles S.S.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 30° 27′ N., lon. 73° 13′ E.

MULKAPOOR.—A fortified town in the province of Berar, thirty miles south from Boorhanpoor; lat. 20° 52′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E.

Mullahpoor (*Mulapur*).—A town in the province of Oude, sixty-one miles N.N.E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 41′ N., lon. 81° 11′ E.

Mullai.—The northernmost town of Afghanistan, situated at the confluence of the Abba Seen river with the Indus; lat. 34° 57′ N., lon. 72° 48° E.

Mullair.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles W.S.W. from Sirhind; lat. 32° 30′ N., lon. 75° 55′ E.

Mullangur.—A small subdivision of the Hyderabad province, situated to the north-east of the capital. The town of Mullangur, from which this tract derives its name, stands in lat. 18° 12′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E.; seventy-seven miles N.E. from Hyderabad.

Mullaow.—A town in the province of Gujerat, sixty miles E. by N. from Cambay; lat. 22° 38′ N., lon. 73° 42′ E.

Mulligaum (*Maligrama*).—A town and strong fortress in the province of Candeish, situated on the river Moosy just above its confluence with the Girna, seventy-five miles N.W. from Aurungabad; lat. 21° 31′ N., lon. 74° 36′ E.

The inner fort at this place is a square of 250 feet, with a round tower at each corner, and another in the centre of each face, except the eastern one, in which are gates with two towers, on a wall advanced sixty feet from the body of the place. The walls are fifty feet high and sixteen broad; the ditch twenty-four feet broad, and from twelve to twenty-six deep, which runs all round, forty-five feet from the curtain, the inner wall of which is carried sixteen feet above the soil, and a strong terraced stabling against it forms two tiers of loop-holes, through a five-feet wall, commanding the ditch and outworks. The outer wall, of stone and lime, is washed by the Moosy on the western side, and stands forty feet from the ditch; but at other parts more than three times that distance. On the east, where it is of mud, there is a second much out of repair; and on the north where the ditch is passed, and also at the ninth and last gateway, a double wall extends nearly to the western corner, of about twenty feet high and twelve broad, covering the centre or paga wall entirely from view.

Such a strong-hold is proof against all irregular approaches, and the rock on which Mulligaum stands being unfavourable to mining, the fort, if properly defended, is capable of a very protracted resistance. During the war of 1818 it was besieged by a British detachment, when an attempt was made, in the month of May, to carry it by storm, which failed, with the loss of three officers killed, two wounded, and eighty men killed and wounded. On the 11th of the ensuing June the grand magazine of the fort blew up, carrying away the works between the two towers of the inner fort to the right of the gateway from their foundations, and the survivors of the garrison surrendered on the 14th.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Munaar.—A town in the province of Malabar, fifty-two miles S.E. from Calicut; lat. 10° 58′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E.

Munadah.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 200 houses, and belonged to the raja of Dewas.

Munassa.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, which in 1820 contained 1,030 houses and a good bazar; lat. 24° 29′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E., 1440 feet above the level of the sea. It belongs to Holcar, and is the head of fifty-six villages in the Rampoora pergunnah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Mundatta.—A small town of 100 houses in the province of Malwa, situated on the south side of an island in the Nerbudda, and famed for the sanctity of its pagoda; lat. 22° 14′ N., lon. 76° 17′ E. The Nerbudda here is confined between rocks, and not more than 100 yards broad, but very deep. About three-quarters of a mile to the eastward is a ghaut, which becomes fordable in January or February, but never easily, owing to

the rapidity of the stream and the large round stones in its channel.

The island of Mundatta is a hill of moderate height, and was formerly fortified, but there are now only the remains of a few gateways and old pagodas, all covered with jungle. The town stands on the slope of the hill. The neighbouring country consists of a succession of low hills, deep ravines, and water-courses, the whole covered with high thick forests, which for seven or eight miles from the river are only passable on foot. The pagoda here is dedicated to Siva or Mahadeva, and about three quarters of a mile further east is the Rock of Sacrifice, whence devotees project themselves during the feast of the Cartic Jhattra.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MUNDAWUL.—A small town in the province of Malwa, seventeen miles N.W. from Maheidpoor; lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 75° 29′ E. In 1820 it contained 268 houses, and along with the pergunnah was the property of Ghuffoor Khan, having been granted to him as a jaghire by the British government. It then yielded a revenue of 73,282 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MUNDERAR.—A town and district in the province of Cabul, seventy-four miles east from the city of Cabul; lat. 34° 11′ N., lon. 70° 35′ E. By Abul Fazel in 1582 the district is described as follows. "Tooman Munderar abounds with monkies. Here the rivers Alishung and Alingar unite their streams, and disembogue themselves into the river Baran. The river Chuganserai, after passing through the north-east quarter, enters Kuttore. Revenue of Toomaun Munderar 26,84,880 dams." At the town of Munderar the waters of the Alingar join the Cabul river. The first-mentioned stream flows down a valley, at the upper part of which two others join and form a figure like the letter Y; the eastern branch is named the Alingar, and the western the Alishung. — (*Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

MUNDESSOR.—A large district in the province of Malwa, situated towards the western extremity, and intersected by the Chumbul river. The city of Mundessor lies in lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 75° 8′ E., eighty miles N.W. from Oojein. The interior is in a ruinous condition, but the walls and gateways are still good. The fort is a square of nearly 120 yards, and sufficiently elevated to command the country. In 1820 it contained about 3,000 houses and belonged to Sindia. In 1818 the treaty between Holcar and the British government was signed here.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MUNDI.—A small district thus named in the province of Lahore, situated to the south of Cooloo, which it is said to excel in fertility. According to native report it contains one mine of iron and another of culinary salt (probably impure rock salt), which yield the raja 1,50,000 rupees per annum; besides which he receives a land revenue of about the same amount. The chief's name in 1810 was Iswari Sen, and his capital Mundi, was then reckoned to contain about 1,000 houses. Camaulghur, situated on a hill towards the southern frontier, is reckoned a strong place. In 1820 Mr. Moorcroft's party was stopped by a Seik Sirdar, who refused them leave to proceed to Cooloo without permission from Runjeet Singh.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MUNDLAH (*or Mundela*).—A division of the province of Gundwana, formerly subject to Nagpoor, but since 1818 comprehended in the British district of Gurrah Mundlah. It is situated principally to the north of the Nerbudda river, which passes through it, and reaches to within a short distance of its source at Omerkuntuc. The capital stands in lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 81° 2′ E., 155 miles N.N.E. from Nagpoor.

The town and fort of Mundlah are separated by an artificial ditch, but taken collectively they form an equilateral triangle. Two sides of this are washed by the Nerbudda, which makes a sudden change of course at the apex formed by the fort, opposite

to which it receives the accession of a small stream named the Bunjar. The fortress therefore is situated on an island in the Nerbudda, which fills the ditch, it being only passable by a narrow causeway at the eastern extremity. The north side of the town, or base of the triangle, is a straight line of works, connecting the bank of the river before and after its abrupt turn. The principal entrance of the town is in the centre of this wall, which contains at frequent intervals the usual flanking defences of round towers.

Such was the description of Mundlah in 1818, when it was one of the Nagpoor raja's strongest fortresses, and taken by assault by a detachment under General Marshall, with much slaughter on the part of the besieged. In 1825 both town and fort were going rapidly to decay, the whole interior of the first having already become a heap of ruins. In 1776 the death of the Mundlah raja induced Moodhajee Bhoonsla to attempt the conquest of this principality, but it was not acquired until 1798, when, along with nearly the whole of Gurrah and the valley of the Nerbudda, it came under the Nagpoor state. Tezghur and Mundlah were given up by the Maharatta chief of Saugur in recompense for aid afforded against Ameer Khan.—(*Blacker, Molony, Jenkins, &c.*)

MUNDLAYER.—A town in the province of Agra, N.W. of the Chumbul river, and seventy-five miles S.W. of the city of Agra; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E. In A.D. 1582, when Abul Fazel compiled the Ayeen Acberry, this was a town of considerable importance.

MUNDLEYSIR.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, five miles east from Mhyshwar; lat. 22° 10′ N., lon. 45° 30′ E. The adjacent country is elevated 696 feet above the level of the sea, but is 1,632 feet below the Jaum Ghaut. There is a ferry across the Nerbudda, the channel of which is here much broken by rocks, and may be forded in the dry season. Even in the month of March there is rarely more than three feet of water. The town is surrounded by a mud wall, and has a small well-built fort of masonry. Mundleysir being the grand commercial and military thoroughfare between Hindostan Proper and the Deccan, a cantonment was formed here in 1818, which is still occupied by a small detachment. On a rocky hillock about a mile to the north, several clusters of basaltic columns are seen rising to the height of four or five feet above the surface of the soil.—(*Malcolm, Fullarton, &c.*)

MUNDOUR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, thirty-four miles south from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 29′ N., lon. 78° 11′ E.

MUNDRAH.—A seaport town in the province of Cutch, thirty-two miles south from Bhooj; lat. 22° 47′ N., lon. 69° 55′ E.

MUNEAH.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-six miles south from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E.

MUNEEMAJRA.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-five miles E.N.E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 41′ N., lon. 76° 49′ E.

MUNGAL (*Mangala*).—A town in the province of Hyderabad, which together with the pergunnah has long been attached to Hyderabad; lat. 17° 4′ N., lon. 79° 48′ E., eighty-four miles south by east from Hyderabad city.

MUNGDOO.—A small and miserable town in the province of Arracan, situated on the line of march from Chittagong to the capital, from which it is thirty-six miles N.W.; lat. 20° 46′ N., lon. 92° 25′ E. In 1827 a new road was constructing through this place, from Chittagong town to the British cantonments at Akyab in Arracan, to pass eastward of the Welladong and westward of the Mungdoo mountains, to Myoo river, where a flotilla is always stationed which can transport troops to Akyab in two hours. The plains about this place

are almost destitute of inhabitants, and if the roads were improved might be peopled from Chittagong.

Mungowlee. — A considerable walled village in the province and district of Bejapoor, fifteen miles traveling distance S.S.W. from the city of that name. It is chiefly inhabited by Brahmins, and has several small Hindoo temples in the neighbourhood.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Mungul (*Mangala*). — A small lordship in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, and consisting of a few villages in the north-eastern corner of Cahlore, which in 1815 yielded to the proprietor only 300 rupees, after deducting 100 rupees paid to Cahlore as the superior power.

Mungulgheree.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Guntoor, situated about twelve miles N.E. from the town of Guntoor. This is a place of some commerce and neatly built, the principal street being wide, and the dwellings striped red and white. It stands at the base of a high mountain, on the acclivity of which about half way up is a pagoda of high reputed sanctity. Another temple has been erected at the foot of the hill, with a gateway of twelve stones about 60 feet in height, resembling the great works of a similar description in Southern Hindostan, but distinguished by its slender obelisk form and greater simplicity of style.

Mungulwara (*Mangalavara*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fortified with a stone wall; lat. 17° 1′ N., lon. 75° 33′ E., sixteen miles S.E. from Punderpoor.

Mungrowlee.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirty-one miles N.E. from Seronge; lat. 24° 24′ N., lon. 77° E.

Mungulhaut (*mangala hata, a flourishing market*).—A considerable inland trading town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, twenty miles north from the capital; lat. 25° 59′ N., lon. 89° 20′ E. This place stands on the south side of the Gurlah river, which separates Rungpoor from Cooch Bahar. The houses are uncommonly good, the streets spacious, and the whole town has a superior appearance when compared with those in the vicinity. On the river are numerous boats of great burthen. Coarse cottons are the staple commodity, and Mungulhaut furnishes a considerable part of the return cargo carried annually by the Bootan caravan from Rungpoor.—(*Capt. Turner, &c.*)

Munipoor (*Manipura, the town of jewels*).—A town of India east of the Ganges, and formerly the capital of the Cassay country; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 94° 30′ E. This town was captured by the Birmans in 1774, and with the district attached, remained tributary until the peace of Yandaboo in 1825, when the Burmese government not only acknowledged the complete independence of Assam and Cachar, but also of Munipoor. This last fortunate circumstance for the Munipooreans, originated from the article of the treaty of Yandaboo, referring to Munipoor, having been more distinctly and fully worded in the Burmese than in the English version of the treaty.

From Banksandy on the frontiers of Silhet to Munipoor, the road runs generally through ranges of low hills and thick jungle, interspersed with Naga villages at great distances from each other; but some of the Khaibund range of mountains are supposed to attain the elevation of 4,000 feet above the plains of Cachar. One of the principal villages, named Kalanaga, and perched on one of the loftiest peaks, contains sixty houses and 300 inhabitants of the Naga tribe, that of Komberoon from 500 to 600 inhabitants. Many streams are crossed, deep and rapid, but none that are navigable.

The amphitheatre in which Munipoor stands varies from twenty to thirty miles in length, and from ten to twelve in width. A broad causeway, now overgrown with jungle, still leads from the base of the hills. It is watered by many streams which rise in

the hills to the north, and flowing in a southerly direction, afterwards fall into the Ningti or Khyndowain, the western branch of the Irawady. The whole valley of Munipoor is now covered with grass jungle, or extensive swamps; but small hills are interspersed, and numerous clumps of trees mark the sites of former villages. The principal entrances from Ava are by the Kubber pergunnah; one lies through a defile south of Munipoor; the other crosses an extensive range of hills inhabited by Nagas.

The spot called Munipoor (1820) presents few vestiges indicative of its ever having been a metropolis. Two broad and deep ditches enclose two areas, the inner of which was formerly occupied by its rajas and their families, the outer by their officers and dependents; but of their dwellings no traces remain, the only ruins now perceptible being those of some small brick temples. The richness of the surrounding soil is manifested by the luxuriance of the grass, and the abundant supply of water.

In June 1825, after the main body of the Burmese formerly stationed in Munipoor had retreated to the south, Lieut. Pemberton, accompanied by Raja Gumbheer Singh and five hundred followers, after surmounting many obstacles, succeeded in penetrating through the Naga country to this place; but such was the scarcity of food that the raja was obliged to return with all speed to Cachar, leaving 300 men in Munipoor, who with difficulty kept themselves alive until the ensuing harvest. The weakest part of the British frontier towards Ava is on the side of Munipoor, which may be easily invaded by the Keynduem river or by land, there being a practicable carriage road of twenty-seven stages of about twelve miles each from Ava to Munipoor, by which route the Burmese invasions of Cassay always took place. We shall in consequence be reluctantly obliged to connect ourselves more closely with this petty and miserable state, which we have by accident rescued from the diabolical sway o the Burmese.—(*Public MS. Documents, Crawfurd, &c.*)

MUNJERABAD.—A village in the province of Mysore, division of Bullum, seventy miles N.W. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 55′ N., lon. 75°53′ E.

MUNNAWUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the west bank of the Maun river, thirty-four miles N.W. by W. from Mhysir; lat. 22° 13′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. It has a fine stone ghurry, and in 1820 contained 400 houses, and belonged to the raja of Amjerah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

MUNOHUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowtee, surrounded by a stone wall, and defended by a ghurry of masonry. In 1820 it contained about 4,000 inhabitants. At this place there is an annual fair for horned cattle, which are brought from a great distance, the average number being from 12,000 to 15,000.

MUNTA.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, thirty-four miles S.E. from Jalna; lat. 19° 41′ N., lon. 76° 37′ E.

MURDANA.—A town in the province of Candeish, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda, twelve miles east from Mundleysir. In 1820 it belonged to Holcar, and contained 200 houses.

MURFAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles E.N.E. from Callinjer; lat. 25° 21′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E.

MURGONG.—A town in the province of Agra, ten miles south from Kalpee; lat. 25° 59′ N., lon. 79°45′E.

MURGORE.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, twenty-nine miles north from Darwar; lat. 15° 52′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E.

MURICHOM.—A small village in Bootan, situated on the west side of the Tchintchieu river, forty-five miles south from Tassisudon; lat. 27° 4′ N., lon. 89° 35′ E. In 1783 this place consisted of only twenty-four houses, but of a superior construction to the

generality of Bootan dwellings. They are built of stone cemented by clay, of a squarish form, but the walls narrowing from the foundation to the top. The roof is supported clear of the walls, and is composed of fir boards placed lengthways on cross beams and joists of fir, and confined by large stones placed on the top. The lower part of the house accommodates hogs, cows, and other animals; the first story is occupied by the family, and ascended by a ladder.

Murichom occupies a spot of even ground on the top of a mountain, and has much cultivated land in the vicinity. The farmers level the ground they cultivate in the slopes of the hills by cutting it into shelves, forming beds of such size as the slopes will admit. The native cinnamon, known in Bengal cookery by the name of tezpaut, grows abundantly in the neighbourhood, and in the season there are plenty of strawberries, raspberries, and peaches. The country surrounding Murichom is much infested by a small fly, which draws blood with a proboscis, and leaves behind a small blister full of black contaminated blood, which festers and causes much irritation.—(*Capt. Turner, &c.*)

MURRAUD.—A large village in the Carnatic, containing a Hindoo temple, and several choultries situated on the high road to Ramisseram, along the southern rocky coast of the Marawa division, district of Madura, about twenty-four miles travelling distance S.E. by E. from Ramnad.

MUSGONG.—A small town in the province of Agra, seven miles S. by W. from Kalpee; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E.

MUSSY RIVER.—A river of the Deccan which has its source at the Anantghur pagoda, forty-three miles west of Hyderabad, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction past that city, and after a course of 180 miles, windings included, falls into the Krishna near Tangada.

MUSTAPHABAD.—A considerable Seik town in the province of Delhi, situated about 104 miles north from the city of Delhi; lat. 30° 10′ N., lon. 77° 6′ E.

MUSTAPHANAGUR.—See CONDAPILLY.

MUSTUNG.—A town in Tibet, situated near the supposed source of the Gunduck; lat. 29° 52′ N., lon. 83° 5′ E. The Mustung raja is a Bhootea chief, who in 1802 was tributary to the Gorkha dynasty of Nepaul; but there is reason to believe that since that date the Gorkhas have been compelled to cede both Musting and Kheroo to the Chinese.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MUTCHERHUTTA (*matsyahata, the fish market*).—A town in the province of Oude, forty-one miles N. by W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 24′ N., lon. 80° 36′ E.

MUTEODU.—A small town in the Mysore raja's territories, which in 1800 contained about 200 houses; lat. 13° 39′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E. At this place there is a manufacture of the glass used for making the rings worn by native women round their wrists. It is very coarse and opaque, and is of five colours: black, green, red, blue, and yellow. All the materials are found in the neighbourhood, and great quantities of the glass is brought by the bangry (ring) makers to the westward. During the hot season soda is found in the form of a white efflorescence on the adjacent sandy fields. The European glass is considered by the ring manufacturers as useless as our cast iron; for neither of these substances is in a state upon which the fires of the natives can have any effect.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

MUTGHUR.—(*Mutighar*).—A town in the province of Oude, district of Gorucpoor, sixteen miles west from the town of Gorucpoor; lat. 26° 45′ N., lon. 83° 4′ E.

MUTTRA.—See MATHURA.

MUZAFFERNAGUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, sixty miles N.E. from the

city of Delhi; lat. 29° 27′ N., lon. 77° 40′ E. This is a populous town with two considerable bazars, a large proportion of brick buildings, and an old fort.

MUZIFFERABAD (*Muzafar-abad*).—A division of the Lahore province, situated to the east of Puckely, inhabited by the Bumbas and Cukkas, both Mahomedan tribes. The former are under two or three chiefs, styled rajas, the principal of whom resides at Muzifferabad. Their territories consist of difficult passes, vast mountains, and dense forests, yet they form the only communication between Cabul and Cashmere.

The town of Muzifferabad (lat. 34° 35′ N., lon. 73° 45′ E., sixty-three miles west from Cashmere city), when visited by Mr. Foster in 1783, was small but populous, and was then the residence of a chief named Sultan Mahmood. The face of the surrounding country exhibits a continued view of mountains, on the sides of which cultivated patches of ground are seen, and scattered hamlets of three or four cottages. The inhabitants of the tract, named Bumbas, are Mahomedans of an Afghan origin, and usually at variance with the Cashmerians, who are their nearest neighbours. The Kishengunga river runs to the west of this town, with a course nearly S.W., and falls into the Jhylum, among the mountains at the head of the Punjab. A common mode of passing the river here is on an inflated sheep or dog's-skin, which supports the head and breast of the passenger, while it is impelled and guided by the motion of his legs. The road between Cashmere and Muzifferabad, which is half way to the Indus, tends to the south-west, and leads over a country covered with mountains intersected by deep vallies.—(*Foster, Elphinstone, 11th Register, &c.*)

MUZUFFERPOOR.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, about thirty-five miles N.N.E. from Patna. It is the capital of the district, and head-quarters of judge, collector, and their civil e blishments.

MUZUREA TEEBA.—A peak on second range of hills in North Hindostan, situated in a direct north-east from Deyrah; lat. 30° N. It attains a height of 6,600 above the level of the sea, with regard to vegetable geogra 600 feet of elevation is recko equivalent to one degree of latitu This spot has been recommende an eligible situation for a bot garden, and also as an asylum European invalids, being at no g distance from Delhi, Merut, and harunpoor. In 1827 specimens rhubarb and acorus calamus, f plants reared on the Muzurea Te were exhibited in Calcutta.—(*I dical Transactions, &c.*)

MYCONDA.—A town in the My province, twenty miles N.W. f Chitteldroog; lat. 14° 16′ N., lon. 13′ E. The fort of Myconda reckoned of importance, being tuated at the entrance of a pass f the westward into the valley Chitteldroog.

MYEE.—A large and meanly b town, surrounded by a mud wall the province of Allahabad, ab sixty miles S. by E. from Calling lat. 24° 17′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E. T place belongs to an independent ch tain, who resides in a small strong fort close to the town, possesses a tract of country exte ing from the territory of the Nag chief to a village called Tacka, wh the dominions of the Nagpoor formerly commenced.

MYEESATH.—A village in Brit Martaban, situated on the Utt river, where its inland navigat terminates. In 1826 Siamese tro were found posted here.

MYMATCHUR.—A town in the p vince of Bejapoor, situated am the Western Ghauts bordering Concan, forty-eight miles N.W. fr Colapoor; lat. 17° 10′ N., lon. 53′ E.

MYMUNSINGH (*Mymunsingh*).—A ;rict in the province of Bengal, si- ted principally between the twen- 'ourth and twenty-fifth degrees north latitude. To the north it is inded by the Garrow mountains l district of Rungpoor; on the th by Dacca Jelalpoor; to the t it has Silhet and Tiperah; and the west Rajeshahy and Dinage- or.

This district is of more recent nation than the adjacent fiscal police divisions, on which ac- nt it underwent no separate men- ation in 1784, but in 1801 it was posed by Mr. Crisp to compre- d 6,700 square miles. It is in- iected throughout its whole ex- t by the great river Brahmaputra, the innumerable streams flowing it; and the surface of the coun- being low and flat, it is, during height of the floods, nearly sub- ged. It is subdivided into ninteen gunnahs and six tuppas, in all nty-five local divisions. The soil evertheless very fertile, and pro- es large quantities of coarse rice mustard, which are the staple imodities. The cultivation, in- l commerce, and general condi- of the country, have greatly im- ved since the decennial settlement the land revenue, afterwards ren- ed perpetual; yet in 1801 it was iputed by the collector that one- rth of its whole area remained in ate of nature. In 1790 the coun- near Bygonbarry, now thickly in- ited, was a complete waste, the nt of wild beasts and river pirates, infested the Brahmaputra for a uit of 100 miles. Raja Raj Singh, Susung in Mymunsingh, besides estates within the British domi- ns, possesses a small independent itory beyond the hills. In 1814 amount of the jumma or land essment to the revenue was 7,550 rupees. In 1821 there were ty distinct estates that paid di- into the government treasury than four annas (sixpence) each, 1,482 that paid less than eighty- rupees each. The principal towns are Nusritabad, Bygonbarry, Seraje- gunge, Bokanagur, and Caugmary, the first named after the late nabob of Dacca.

There are not any regular semina- ries in the Mymunsingh district for teaching the Mahomedan law, but there are two or three schools in each pergunnah for instruction in Hindoo learning, where scholars are taught gratuitously, it being deemed disgraceful to receive money for in- struction. In 1801 the total popu- lation was estimated by Mr. Crisp at 1,300,000 persons, and in 1821 the majority of the inhabitants were Ma- homedans in the proportion of five to two Hindoos.—(*Crisp, D. Scott, Le Gros, J. Shakespear, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

MYNPAUT.—An elevated table- land in the province of Gundwana and division of Sumbhulpoor, but which has not yet been completely explored, indeed, has only been dis- covered within these few years. The height of this plateau is still un- known, but is said to be so consi- derable as to affect the temperature. Its surface presents a wide expanse of forest and jungle rarely disturbed by man, containing some wild ani- mals hitherto but rarely seen by Europeans. One of these is the gaour, a non-descript of the bos tribe, marked by the peculiarities that distinguish the bison.

The height of this animal from the hoof to the withers exceeds eighteen hands, and length from the tip of the nose to the extremity of the tail twelve feet. The form of the head and horns resemble those of an Eng- lish bull; the colour dark brown, but owing to the fineness and density of its coat looks a shining black. The gaour is very muscular, and has great width of chest and quarters, and its legs being short in proportion to the bulk of its body, gives it the appearance of immense strength. Its distinctive character from others of the bovine race, is a thick and eleva- ted spinous ridge which extends in the form of an arch from the end

of the cervical vertebræ to half way down the dorsal vertebræ, the elevation over the shoulders being nearly seven inches above the line of the spine, where the ridge gradually terminates. At a distance this ridge has the appearance of the hump on bullocks, but instead of flesh it is formed of spinous processes. It is gregarious, going in herds, and in defence of its young it is said by the natives to be extremely fierce. They do not all mingle with the wild buffaloe, and of the two the gaour is unquestionably the most powerful animal. Its haunts on the Mynpaut are in the deepest jungles, probably on account of the superior verdure found in these secluded spots, and it is extremely difficult to catch them, or to rear them after they are caught. Although Mynpaut be its principal habitation gaours are frequently found in other districts, and have been killed in Ramghur, Palamow, and Chuta Nagpoor.

Another inhabitant of this table-land is the mirgee or mouse-deer, probably from the form of its head resembling that of a mouse. This pretty little animal is the smallest of the deer species, being about the size of a full grown English fox. There is another remarkable animal called the quyo, which is conjectured to be a kind of wild dog. The natives say it hunts the tiger in packs, but this seems improbable. The pangolin is also occasionally seen, and is called the diamond-reptile by the natives on account of the shape of its scales; there are also a great variety of snakes and serpents, and among others the boa-constrictor.

In the Mynpaut and other forests in this quarter of Hindostan, a large species of caterpillar (the bombyx-pappia) is found, which attaches itself principally to the branches of the ausun (*terminalia alata tormentosa*) common in the Indian jungles, and forms a cocoon as large as a turkey's egg. From this the tusser or coarse silk is obtained as from the regular cocoon, and is used in the coarse silk and cotton fabrics. The lac insect also abounds, and its produce is a principal article of traffic. It consists of two kinds; one containing much colouring matter (which is in fact the insect itself) is preferred for the extraction of the lac dye, the other (which is the nidus of the insect) for the manufacture of stick lac. That found on the butea-frondosa yields the largest quantity of colouring matter.—(*Medical Transactions, &c.*)

MYO ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated in the Molucca passage, which separates Celebes from Gilolo; lat. 1° 23′ N., lon. 126° 15′ E. This island was inhabited while the Portuguese held the Moluccas; but the Dutch expelled the inhabitants lest it should become convenient for the smuggling of spices.

MYPAULGHUR.—A hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor, division of Azimnagur, about fourteen miles W. by N. from Belgaum. This fortress, now deserted, appears to have been several miles in extent, occupying the summit of a lofty and abrupt mountain, scarped at the top to increase the difficulty of ascent.

MYSOL ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, situated about the second degree of south latitude, midway between the large islands of Ceram and Papua. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by fifteen the average breadth.

On the east coast of Mysol is the harbour of Efbé, formed by a small island of the same name, on which fresh water may be procured in great abundance without any risk from the winds, as the harbour is perfectly land-locked. Like the rest of the islands east of the Molucca passage, it is inhabited on the sea-coast by Mahomedans, commonly called Malays, and inland by the aboriginal natives or Horaforas. The chiefs of the former are denominated rajas, which is a noted Hindoo title on continental India.

Birds of Paradise arrive here at certain seasons of the year in flocks

from the eastward, and settling on the trees are caught with bird-lime. The bodies are afterwards dried with the feathers on, as they are seen in Europe. The black louri, which is a very scarce bird, may also occasionally be purchased here. The other articles of export are biche de mar, missoy bark, ambergris, pearls, pearl oyster-shells, all small in quantity, and slaves. The imports are coarse piece-goods, cutlery, beads, iron in bars, chinaware, looking-glasses, and brass-wire. The industrious Chinese settled at Amboyna are the principal traders, but the whole amount is quite insignificant.—(*Forrest, Labillardiere, &c.*)

MYSORE.

(Maheshasura.)

A large province in the south of India, situated principally between the eleventh and fifteenth degrees of north latitude, and now surrounded by the British territories under the Madras presidency. In length it may be estimated at 210 miles, by 140 the average breadth. The whole of this country is enclosed on two sides by the eastern and western ghauts, and consists of an elevated table-land or plateau, from which rise many lofty hills and clusters of hills, containing the sources of nearly all the rivers that intersect and fertilize the low countries. The altitude varies at different places; at Peddanack Durgum pass barometrical observations gave 1,907 feet; at Baitamangalum 2,435 feet; at Bangalore 2,807; at Hurryhur 1,831; while the same method of measurement assigns to Sivagunga, the highest mountain in Mysore, an elevation of 4,600 feet. The descent proceeding northward is very perceptible. At Sera, on the high ground near to the Mahomedan mausoleum, the height is only about 2,223 feet above the level of the sea, which in a distance of eighty-four miles gives a declension of 584 feet. The climate of this elevated region is temperate, and healthy to a degree unknown in any other tract of the like extent within the tropics. The monsoons or boisterous periodical rains, which at different times deluge the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, have their force broken by the ghaut mountains, and spread from either side into the interior in frequent showers, which, though sometimes heavy, are seldom of long continuance, and preserve both the temperature of the climate and the verdure of the fields throughout the year.

To enter the Mysore province there are several passes, such as the Muggler, the Palicaud, the Amboor, the Guzzelhutty, the Changama, and the Attoor; but these passes, while they facilitated the operations of Hyder when invading the Carnatic from the Baramahal valley, offered no similar advantages to the invaders of his country; for as the only practicable roads then united in Palicaud which leads to Ossoor, he had but one entrance to defend. The droogs or hill forts in this province are very numerous, and of a peculiar character, the sites chosen for such works being generally some of the vast rounded and naked masses of primitive rock seen in every direction rising above the surface of the table-land, and which, although of a steep and difficult ascent, are not like the scarped rocks north of the Krishna wholly inaccessible. In consequence of this circumstance, to complete their security, it has usually been found necessary to fortify them with successive lines of works, carried tier above tier from the base to the summit.

The rock that forms the basis of the whole country is a kind of syenite, composed for the most part of four ingredients, quartz, felspar, horneblende, and mica. Common salt occurs in considerable abundance on the surface of the red soil, where it effloresces during the dry season. Carbonate of soda is also found, especially among the Chitteldroog hills, but considerably mixed with common salt. The principal rivers are the Cavery, the Toombudra, the Vedavati, the Bhadri, the Arkanati, the Pennar, Palar, and Panaur; but, ex-

cept the Cavery, none of these streams attain any magnitude until they have quitted the limits of the province. There are no lakes in the northern parts of Mysore, but many large tanks and artificial reservoirs in the high grounds. The liquid in these being rain-water is always sweet, and on that account preferred by the natives to that of wells, which is frequently brackish. At Bangalore in particular there are several wells of what the natives call salt water, some of them situated close to others that are perfectly fresh, which is to be accounted for from the vertical position of the strata.

The dominions of the Mysore raja are at present subdivided into three great districts or subayenas, called the Patana (or Seringapatam), the Nagara (or Bednore), and the Chatracul (or Chitteldroog) subayenas. The Patana division is by far the largest, and contains alone a greater extent of territory than was originally subject to the raja's family. It comprehends ninety-one subdivisions, and was originally under the immediate inspection of the dewan or prime minister. In addition to the above territories, since his connexion with the British government he has acquired the Chitteldroog subayena, containing thirteen, and the Nagara containing nineteen subdivisions, each superintended by a soubahdar. The chief towns are Seringapatam, Bangalore, Bednore, Chitteldroog, and Sera.

From the remains of hedges and other signs, the Mysore province appears at some remote period to have been in a much higher state of cultivation than it at present exhibits, although it has greatly recovered during the long tranquillity it has enjoyed since 1799. Extensive tracts are overrun with forest jungle, more especially with the wild date, which grows here in the greatest luxuriance. When land here is once brought into cultivation for rice, it is considered as having arrived at the highest possible degree of improvement, and all attempts to render it more productive, by a succession of crops, neglected as superfluous. Besides rice, the lands produce the following articles: the checadu, the dodada, the phaseolus mungo, the dolichos catjang, the sesamum orientale, and the sugar-cane, for which a black clay is the best soil. The raggy crop is by far the most important, as it supplies all the lower ranks of society with their common food, wheat being only cultivated in gardens and spots of rich soil. The ricinus palma christi is cultivated, and produces abundance of castor oil, which is used for the lamp and a variety of other purposes. The betel-leaf tree thrives best in low grounds. About Colar the poppy is cultivated both for making opium and on account of the seed, which is much used in the sweet cakes eaten by the higher ranks of natives. Tobacco is not much raised, and its quality inferior, but the coco-nut palm is general. The success with which this palm is raised in the centre of Mysore, refutes the old opinion that it will only thrive on the sea-coast; it appears, however, in every situation to require a soil impregnated with salt. The aloe is a very common plant in Mysore, and used almost as generally for hedge enclosures as the prickle-pear and milk bush in the Deccan.

Owing to the extreme imperfection of their instruments, and want of strength in their cattle, the fields in this province are very imperfectly cleared. After six or eight ploughings in all directions, numerous small bushes remain as erect as before the labour commenced, while the plough has not penetrated three inches deep. The latter has neither coulter nor mould-board to divide and turn over the soil. Two crops of rice are seldom taken from the same field in one year. In some parts the first quality of land will produce from forty-seven to forty-nine bushels; the second from thirty-five to forty-two; and the third quality from seventeen to twenty-four bushels of rice in the husk, in which state it is usually preserved, and will keep two years without de-

terioration, and four without being unfit for use.

The cattle reared in the vicinity of Seringapatam are cows, buffaloes, sheep, and the long-legged goat. The natives of Mysore and India generally, seldom use butter after the manner of Europeans, but prefer what is called ghee, not only because it keeps better, but also on account of its having more taste and smell. In order to collect a quantity sufficient for the making of ghee the butter is often kept two or three days, which in a warm climate renders it rancid. It is then melted in an earthern pot, and boiled until all the water has evaporated, when it is poured into pots, and kept for use. The native breed of horses here, as in most parts of India, is a small, ill-shaped vicious pony, although considerable pains were taken by Hyder and Tippoo to introduce a better kind, but without success; and their cavalry continued to the last ill-mounted. Swine were once very common in Mysore, but Tippoo succeeded in banishing the unclean animal from the neighbourhood of his capital.

Mysore, upon the whole, is but thinly inhabited, and not to be compared with Bengal or any of the Company's old provinces. In consequence of incessant wars and calamities prior to the final conquest in 1799, many districts, formerly well-peopled, still scarcely exhibit the vestige of a human being. In 1761 it was ravaged by Bunee Visajee Pundit; in 1765, 1767, and 1770, by the Peshwa Madhurow; in 1771 by Trimbuck Row; in 1774 by Ragoonauth Row; in 1776 and 1786 by Hurry Punt Phurkia; and in 1791 and 1792 it sustained most merciless ravages from the troops of Purseram Bhow. In 1799, when the conquest of Mysore was finally achieved by the army under General Harris, the new administration established by the British government commenced its proceedings by proclaiming an unqualified remission of revenue balances, and the restoration of the ancient Hindoo assessment on the lands. In 1804 the number of families in the Mysore raja's territories was estimated at 482,612, and the total inhabitants at 2,171,754, since which they have no doubt greatly increased. Of these families there does not appear to have been more than 17,000 of the Mahomedan religion, which is rather extraordinary, considering that it had been thirty-eight years under two zealous sovereigns of that faith. The Brahmin families where then 25,370; the Lingait 72,627; and the Jain 2,063. The gross revenue of the Mysore raja at the above date was 25,81,550 pagodas. Accounts are here kept in canter raya pagodas, and the seer is the standard weight. Cloth and timber are usually measured by the purchaser's cubit, which may be considered in all nations as eighteen inches on an average. Notwithstanding the despotic authority of Tippoo, the last sultan, he was never able to establish a uniformity of weights or measures, or even an approach to it. In this country and throughout Mysore generally, a great deal of bullion is lost to the world by being buried, as when the owners get old and stupid, they forget where their treasures are hidden; and sometimes when they do know, die without divulging the secret.

Since the conquest in 1799, several excellent roads have been made to facilitate the conveyance of troops, guns, and stores, and have greatly exalted the reputation of the minister Purneah, by whom they were constructed. Like many other institutions in the south of India, they contribute to the ease and pleasure of travellers, especially European ones, and also to the advantage of government; but many years must pass away before commerce could either make or keep such roads in repair. A turnpike or toll would not defray the expense, unless it were taken on the guns, stores, and arrack of the army; it is consequently unjust to compel the neighbouring peasantry either to make or repair the

highways. It may be said that at one season of the year the peasantry have nothing else to do; but to make them work gratuitously on the roads is to levy an extra assessment in labour instead of money. A military road is meant to facilitate the march of armies for the national defence; a general assessment ought consequently to be made to defray the expense; the treasury, therefore, and not the unfortunate villagers who happen to be in the tract through which the great road is to be carried, should disburse the funds from which the charge is to be defrayed. In India a corvée is always productive of much oppression. If an extra assessment of either land or labour be once admitted, the door to abuse and petty tyranny is spread open. Besides this, the people of the villages through which these roads pass have no more to do with them than others five hundred miles off, except that they are more exposed to the inconveniences that travellers and detachments invariably occasion. In England, where the king has lost his privilege of purveyance, a village gets rich by becoming a stage on a great road; but in India the reverse happens, and a village is infinitely molested and impoverished by the applications, or rather the exactions of troops and travellers.

Mysore having submitted to the Mahomedan yoke at a very recent period compared with the rest of Hindostan, retains the primitive Hindoo manners and customs in considerable purity. From persons of this faith information is best collected when a considerable number of them are gathered together; for when a few are present they are afraid of reflections from those who are absent, and in general Hindoos are rather inclined to have matters of business publicly discussed. The person receiving charity is here considered of higher rank than the donor; but by charity must be understood something given to a person asking for it in the name of God, as having dedicated himself to a religious life. When sick, Hindoos often make a vow of subsisting by begging for a certain number of days after they recover.

When two parties in a village have a dispute, one of them frequently has recourse to an expedient by which both suffer, and this is the killing of a jackass in the streets, which ensures the immediate desolation of the place, where no Hindoo would sojourn another night without compulsion. Even the adversaries of the party that killed the ass, would think themselves bound in honour to fly. The natives also have recourse to something similar when they think themselves oppressed by government in matters of caste. The monkeys and squirrels are here very destructive, but it is reckoned sinful to kill them. The proprietors of gardens used formerly to hire a particular class of men, who took these animals in nets, and then by stealth conveyed them to the gardens of some distant village; but as the people there had recourse to the same expedient, all parties became tired of the practice.

The washerman of every village, whose function is hereditary, washes all the farmers' clothes; and according to the number of persons in the family, receives a regulated proportion of the crop. They also wash the cloths of the Panchanga, or village astrologer, who (they say) in return visits them occasionally, and tells them some lies, for that he is never at the trouble of predicting the truth except to the rich. Indeed, a rich man in India, as elsewhere, has many friends; but none are so anxious for his welfare as the astrologer. The opulent retain one as they retain a physician, and he is deemed as necessary as the family guide in spiritual matters; the one prescribing for the future, the other for the present moment. The dress of the Mysorean females is generally becoming, and they have fine forms; the men are mostly stout and healthy, and rather taller than the natives of Coromandel, with complexions a tinge fairer. In villages not far from Seringapatam

many of the farmers eat pork; but although the Cavery abounds with fish, very few are caught by the natives, who are not, like those of Bengal, partial to this species of food. The Hindoos seldom erect magnificent buildings; and the Mahomedan leaders under Tippoo were too uncertain of their property to lay much out on houses. Every thing they acquired was in general immediately expended on dress, equipage, and amusements, which partly accounts for there being in reality no private buildings in Mysore of any grandeur. The cottages of the peasantry, however, are on the whole more neat and commodious than in most parts of India, yet are almost universally constructed of the red soil of the country and roofed with tiles. Nor are the best habitations composed of superior materials, or further distinguished from the cottages than by their size and white-washed coats.

Owing to the practice of polygamy very few females in this country live in a state of celibacy except young widows of high caste, who cannot marry again. These, however, are numerous, matches between old men and mere children being quite frequent. The comfort of having children is, in general, all the pleasure that married women of high rank enjoy in India. Where polygamy prevails, love is but little known; or if it does possess a man, he is usually captivated by some artful dancing-girl, and not by any of his wives. With a few exceptions, the females are not confined; but on marriage they usually adopt the religious forms of their husbands. In every part of India a man's marrying his uncle's daughter is looked upon as incestuous.

The division and subdivision of caste throughout Hindostan is infinite. The Brahmins assert that they are divided into at least 2,000 tribes, which never intermarry, although permitted to do so without infringing their caste. In Mysore there are three principal sects: 1. The Smartal; 2. The Sri Vaishnavam; and 3. The Madual. A great majority of the Hindoo castes are allowed by their religion to eat animal food, and a considerable number to drink spirituous liquors. The circumstances that add dignity to a caste in this country are,—its being restricted from the pleasures of the table; the following of no useful employment; and being dedicated to what are here called piety and learning. Every man consequently endeavours to assume as much as possible the appearance of these perfections; and among the inhabitants of Mysore a hypocritical cant is a very prevailing fashion.

The males of the Mysore raja's family are divided into two great branches, the raja Bundas and the Collalays, who intermarry. The head of the first is the curtur, or sovereign; and of the last the dalawai. Some of the males of each family are of Vishnu's side, and some of them of Siva's; but none wear the linga, and all acknowledge the Brahmins as their spiritual guides. The curtur, immediately on ascending the throne, whatever religion he may have been educated in, always adopts the ceremonies at least of the Sri Vaishnavam. On the contrary, the ladies of both families wear the linga, reject the authority of the Brahmins, and are under the spiritual guidance of the Jangamas. This arrangement among other nations would be considered extraordinary, but among Hindoos it is not uncommon. With this religious sect a man is reckoned good who prays constantly, bestows large alms on religious mendicants, and who makes tanks, choultries, reservoirs, and gardens. To be absorbed into the substance of their gods is supposed by the Hindoos to be the greatest possible felicity, and only happens to particular favourites. The rich among the lower castes procure absolution for their sins by giving charity to the Brahmins; the poor, not having this resource, must trust to the mercy of God.

The Mysore raja's family traces its origin to the Yadava tribe, which boasts among its eminent characters

Krishna, the celebrated Hindoo Apollo; and at a remote period had its domicile at Dwaraca, in the Gujerat peninsula. The first sovereign on record is Cham Raj, who ascended the throne in A.D. 1507; Tim Raj, who reigned in 1548; Heere Cham Raj, who died in 1576; Cham Raj, who died in 1637; Immader Raj, who reigned one year; Canty Revy Narsa Raj, who reigned until 1659; Dud Deo Raj, until 1672; Chick Deo Raj, until 1704; Canty Raj, in whose reign began the influence of the dalawais, or prime ministers, until 1714; Dud Kishen Raj, until 1731.

Chick Kishen Raj, whose ministers were Deo Raj and the younger Nunseraj, who undertook the long siege of Trichinopoly, where he was baffled by Major Lawrence. In this reign appeared Hyder Ali Khan, who afterwards became supreme monarch of Mysore and many adjacent provinces. He was twenty-seven years of age before he entered the military service, in which he afterwards made so distinguished a figure, and was through life unable either to read or write. His career began about 1749, but it was A.D. 1755 before he had his first separate command, when he was sent by the Dalawai Nunseraj to subdue Dindigul.

In 1760 Hyder assumed sovereign power, having banished Nunseraj, his patron. In 1780 he invaded the lower Carnatic, which he desolated with fire and sword, carrying his ravages to the gates of Madras. By the firmness and exertions of Mr. Hastings, and the great military talents of Sir Eyre Coote, his progress was arrested; but being powerfully assisted by the French, he was enabled to carry on an indecisive warfare until the 9th of December 1782, when he died, leaving the throne to his son Tippoo, who had already established his reputation as a commander.

This prince was born in 1753, while his father served in the Carnatic, and was named after Tippoo Sultan, a celebrated Mahomedan devotee of Arcot, where his mausoleum continues a favourite resort of the pious, and for whom Hyder had a particular veneration. This ascetic, like other sophis, or purely abstracted saints, assumed the royal designation of shah, or sultan, as the subduer of himself, and conqueror and spiritual lord of his passions; in the Canarese, Tippoo signifies a tiger. Kurreem Saheb, Tippoo's elder brother, was set aside as a madman, who occasionally had lucid intervals; but in general his intellects were those of a child, with the obstinacy of a mule, both depending greatly on the quantity of opium or bang he had swallowed.

Pursuing the steps of his father, Tippoo prosecuted the war until the 11th of March 1784, when being deprived of the co-operation of his French allies by the peace in Europe, he concluded a treaty on extraordinary honourable terms. From the above date he was occupied in harassing and subduing his neighbours until 1790, when he made an unprovoked attack on the raja of Travancore, who called on the British government for the assistance stipulated by treaties. A war commenced in consequence, which terminated on the 16th of March 1792, in a peace concluded by Lord Cornwallis under the walls of Seringapatam, which deprived him of one-half of his dominions and rendered the other of uncertain tenure. To recover his lost power, and gratify the intensity of his hatred to the British nation, he solicited the alliance of the French republic and of Zemaun Shah of Cabul, and endeavoured to excite disaffection and rebellion among the Mussulmaun natives of the British provinces. A second war ensued, which for him had a fatal conclusion. On the 4th of May 1799 Seringapatam, his capital, was stormed by the army under General Harris, when he fell by an unknown hand, and with him terminated the Mahomedan dynasty of Mysore, having lasted thirty-eight years. This sovereign had considerable talents as a military man; but he wanted the prudence and common sense of his father Hyder. He succeeded best in

attaching the lower classes of Mahomedans; and he possessed all the cant, bigotry, and zeal, necessary for effecting that object. None of his Mussulmaun soldiers entered the British service, although many suffered extreme poverty; and they still revere his memory, considering him as a martyr fallen in defence of their religion.

On the 22d June 1799, the British government raised to the throne Maha Raja Krishna Udiaver (then six years of age), a legitimate descendant of the ancient Mysore family, which had been superseded, first by the dalawais or prime ministers, and afterwards by Hyder and his son. By a subsidiary treaty concluded with him on the 8th of July that year, it was stipulated that the British government should maintain a military force for the defence of Mysore against all invaders, for which the raja should pay an annual subsidy of seven lacks of pagodas. To conduct the affairs of state an experienced native named Purneah, who had distinguished himself as chief finance minister under Tippoo, was appointed dewan, and under his able management the country continued to advance with unprecedented rapidity.

The surviving members of Tippoo's family were for some years kept in custody at Vellore, where they were afforded a liberal allowance, and every practicable indulgence consistent with their safety, but in consequence of the part they took in instigating the mutiny and massacre at that fortress in 1806 they were removed to Bengal, where in 1811 Mohi ud Deen, the third and only legitimate son of the late Tippoo Sultan, put an end to his existence by shooting himself with a gun, an instance of suicide rare among the followers of the Arabian prophet. In 1812 Padeshah Begum, the first and only surviving wife of Tippoo, who had all along refused to accept any pension from the British government, expressed herself desirous of it, and it was immediately granted, besides a sum per annum for cloth money. One of the first bodies of regular Pindaries was formed and nominally headed by the son of Kurreem Khan, and grandson of Hyder, who had been seduced away by a northern Brahmin soon after the fall of Seringapatam, and whose intellects were even more deranged than those of his father. His name, however, as the nephew of Tippoo Sultan, was sufficient to attract a numerous band of plunderers; but they were put down along with the other corps of depredators during the campaign of 1818. In April of the same year Moiz ud Deen, another of Tippoo's sons, died at Calcutta of the cholera morbus.

In 1812, Raja Krishna Udiaver having attained the age of nineteen, expressed a strong desire to assume the active charge of his dominions, which so much incensed the dewan Purneah, who had hitherto administered the whole, that he used insulting expressions to the raja, for which he was reprimanded by the acting resident. This rupture proceeded to such an extremity that a cordial reconciliation appeared impossible, and the raja having not only attained a mature age, but shewn considerable talents for business, and moderation of disposition, it was determined to invest him with the whole power to which he was entitled by the original treaty of federal alliance in 1799. This arrangement was accordingly carried into execution; but the old dewan whose temper was imperious, and who had been long accustomed to govern, did not long survive what he considered a degradation. The same year he had a paralytic stroke which affected his understanding, and he shortly afterwards quitted this life altogether. On this event the raja continued the stipends to his family, cancelled a debt due to his treasury by the dewan of six lacks of pagodas (£240,000), and in every respect manifested a degree of liberality and magnanimity highly honourable to his character.

It has been said, and certainly with some appearance of truth, that the effect of the British subsidiary sys-

tem on the part of the protected prince, is to generate an indifference to the welfare of his subjects, and a propensity to sensual indulgencies or the most sordid avarice, or both. That this has been too much the case is sincerely to be lamented; but the reigning raja of Mysore, Krishna Udiaver, exhibits an honourable exception to this general stagnation of intellect, his rule being equitable (1823), and his private conduct in every respect correct. – (*F. Buchanan, Wilks, Dirom, Fullarton, Thackery, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Mysore (*Maheshasura*). — The ancient and modern capital of the province, having been for about thirty years superseded by Seringapatam, from which it is distant about nine miles; lat. 12° 19′ N., lon. 76° 42′ E. This place has increased so rapidly since the revival of the old dynasty, that in 1820 it already covered a vast space of ground, with its white buildings ranged in regular streets, and intermingled with trees and temples. It is enclosed by a wall of red earth, and the architecture closely resembles that of Seringapatam; but the houses are larger and better, and there is an appearance of much greater activity and population. The fort, separated from the pettah by an esplanade, is an extensive work in imitation of the European style, and contains besides the raja's palace (an irregular building forming three sides of a square), the dwellings of the principal merchants and bankers, and many other private edifices. There is likewise a large and handsome suburb to the south of the fort, and the British residency stands on a rising ground at a short distance from the pettah.

A vast tank or embanked lake extends from the vicinity of the fort towards the base of the Mysore hill, a conical eminence about 1,000 feet high, which rises from the plain about five miles distance from the city. The resident has a house on the summit, which is reached by a wide but not very easy road. On the south-western declivity, in the midst of a Brahmin village, there are two Hindoo temples of great local repute, to which the raja makes a yearly pilgrimage; and still lower down there is a gigantic figure of the bull Nundy (named here Baswa), cut out of the rock, sixteen feet high, and surpassing in execution the bulls of Bijanagur and Nundydroog. The view from the top of this hill is much celebrated.

The late dewan, Purneah, had conceived the design of supplying Mysore with water brought by a canal from the Cavery, thirty miles in length, between thirty and forty feet in breadth, and sunk in some places to the depth of eighty feet through strata of solid rock. Vast sums were expended on this undertaking, and there remained only about half a mile of the cut to be completed, when it was discovered that the level was too high to admit of its being filled, and the work was consequently relinquished. The raja having been bred up under the protection of Europeans, is in the habit of receiving them at his court without much restraint of Eastern ceremony. On state occasions, however, he sometimes goes abroad in a carriage drawn by four elephants, and capable of holding sixty persons. Mysore is a corruption of Mahesh Asura, the name of a buffaloe-headed monster, whose overthrow constitutes one of the most celebrated exploits of the goddess Cali.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Mysory Isle (*or Shouten's isle*).— An island in the Eastern seas situated to the north of the great bay in Papua or New Guinea, about the first degree of south latitude, and one day's sail distant from Dory harbour. In length it may be estimated at seventy-five miles, by twenty the average breadth. It was originally named Horn's island, but the crews of Shouten's and of Marie's ships in 1616, thought proper to change its appellation to Shouten's island. The name by which it is known to the natives of the adjacent islands is Mysory. Captain Forrest,

from Malay information, describes it as well inhabited, under the government of rajas, and very productive of calavances.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Naads.—See Neelgherry Mountains.

Nackapilly.—A neatly-built village situated in a beautiful valley in the Northern Circars, district of Vizagapatam, and about five miles travelling distance from the town of that name. A fine tank extends to the eastward of the village; and beyond it is an insulated green hill, at the foot of which is a Brahmin village and venerable temple, dedicated to Krishna by the name of Gopaul Swamy. In another is an image of Vishnu under the title of Ballajee. Archways are thrown across the approaches of both pagodas, and a steep flight of steps conducts to that on the hill, which is covered with jungle.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Nadone (*Nadaun*).—A town in the province of Lahore, division of Kangra, of which it is the modern capital. It stands on the south side of the Beyah river, eighty-seven miles E.N.E. from Amritsir; lat. 31° 55′ N., lon. 76° 11′ E. The district attached to Nadone is a mountainous tract of country, which borders on the Punjab, and is at present tributary to Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore. In 1806 it was overrun by the Gorkhas of Nepaul, who then obtained possession of the town (said to contain 500 houses), from which they were subsequently expelled. In 1824 the British native news-writer at Nadone was suppressed, the information of occurrences in that quarter to be supplied by the news-writer at Lahore.—(*Malcolm, Foster, &c.*)

Naeeragain.—A small stockade in Arracan, built on the Aeng road, within the British line of demarkation, and a good military position. It is a complete key to the Aeng road, commanding the eastern and western ascents. Water, although of difficult access, is to be had in abundance, and it is quite a mistake that none exists; on the contrary springs, abound and might be easily collected into reservoirs. —(*Trant, &c.*)

Nagamangalum.—A large square mud fort in the Mysore province, twenty-six miles N. by E. from Seringapatam, containing a square citadel in the centre; lat. 12° 48′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E.

Nagaram. — A town and fertile tract of country in the Northern Circars, insulated by two branches of the Godavery river, which here forms a delta.

Nagas.—A singular race of hill people in India east of the Ganges, who extend from the north-western extremity of Cachar to Chittagong, between 93° 8′ and 94° 15′ E., and principally between Banscandy on the frontiers of Silhet and Munipoor. The Naga villages are perched on the most inaccessible peaks of the mountains, from whence they can perceive and guard against danger. Their dwellings consist of extensive thatch houses from thirty to fifty feet long, resting on posts, but almost on the ground, the whole constructed in a solid and compact manner. Their country is nominally divided between the Cachar and Munipoor states.

Some differences are perceptible between the hill Nagas and the Koochung tribes, scattered along the ranges south of the Barak river. The latter are smaller in stature, darker in complexion, and generally worse looking. Their rapacity and sanguinary habits have depopulated the hills inhabited by the less martial tribes, and they make predatory incursions to a considerable distance. The Northern Nagas have some resemblance to the Chinese, but the whole tribe are described as possessing considerable muscular strength and symmetry of form, and are remarkable for a characteristic restlessness. They carry cotton to the Banscandy and Munipoor bazars, which they exchange for fowls, dried fish, tobacco, and cloth. Their dainties are

rice, fowls, pigs, and kids, but they reject milk, which they execrate and abhor. The Naga females, as in all similar stages of society, are most cruelly oppressed, and doomed to incessant labour. We have as yet no authentic account of their religious tenets, but they probably remain unconverted to any foreign persuasion. —(*Lieut. Pemberton, Public Journals, &c.*)

NAGGREE (*or Nagricote*). — A fort and important military station in Northern Hindostan, principality of Sikkim, eighty-seven miles N.N.E. from the town of Purneah; lat. 26° 56′ N., lon. 88° 8′ E. After the pacification of 1815 the Gorkhas for a long time evaded the cession of this fort, to which they attached much importance; but it was at length occupied by a detachment of British sepoys in April 1816. When examined it was found to be of extraordinary natural strength, to increase which two iron three-pounders were despatched from Bengal, no larger pieces of ordnance being conveniently transportable in this rugged quarter. These with a due proportion of ammunition were presented to the Sikkim raja, as an acknowledgment for his zeal and fidelity. Naggree may be considered as the key to the hills in this quarter, as by having possession of it, it would be practicable, in conjunction with our allies the Lapchas, to get into the rear of Dellamcotta, and some of the principal passes into Bootan. — (*Public MS. Documents, Capt. Latter, &c.*)

NAGHERY (*Nagari*).—A town in the Carnatic, fifty miles W.N.W. from Madras; lat. 13° 19′ N., lon. 79° 39′ E.

NAGJEERY.—A town in Candeish, twenty-nine miles W. by N. from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 26′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E.

NAGNEE. — A small hamlet in Northern Hindostan, twenty-six miles north of the Chour station: lat. 31° 5′ N., lon. 77° 26′ E., 8,808 feet above the level of the sea.

NAGNE RIVER.—A small river in the Gujerat peninsula, which rises in a range of hills fourteen miles to the S.E. of Lawria, passes the city of Noanagur, and falls into the shallow part of the gulf of Cutch, here called the Runn. The name of this river is derived from a fabulous traditionary story of an enormous nag or snake which dwelt in a tank among the hills, and endeavouring to escape from his enemies, burst the tank, and formed the channel of the river. Its waters are esteemed by the natives as having a quality peculiarly suited for the dyeing of cloth.

NAGONE (*or Nagound*).—A large village in the province of Allahabad, meanly built of mud and tiles, situated about thirty miles south of Callinger; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 80° 35′ E.

NAGORBUSSY (*Nagara bashi*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, forty-two miles N.E. from Patna: lat. 25° 33′ N., lon. 85° 51′ E.

NAGORE (*Nagara*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, sixty-three miles W.S.W. from Moorshedabad; lat. 23° 56′ N., lon. 87° 20′ E. This place is mentioned so early as A.D. 1244 as a Mahomedan fortress, when it was the capital of Birboom, and the bulwark of the Bengal province against the incursions of the western mountaineers. An area of ten miles in diameter round the town was formerly enclosed by a mud rampart and entrenchment. This extensive and feeble barrier is still in tolerable preservation, and about twelve miles to the north-west; a pass near the village of Dolea is crossed by a similar line of fortification. The ruins of the palace of the now decayed rajas of Birboom, seated on the margin of a fine tank, with a small bowlee and several mosques, are all the vestiges that now remain of this ancient capital. Seven miles distant are the hot-springs of Bucclessore.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NAGORE.—A sea-port town in the

Carnatic province, and district of Tanjore, thirteen miles south from Tranquebar; lat. 10° 45′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E. This is a populous and busy place, with several tolerably good streets, and a well stocked bazar, and possessing from thirty to forty trading vessels of considerable size. The main branch of the Nagore river bounds it on the north, and forms its harbour. The famous minar of Nagore is a strange heavy quadrangular structure, 150 feet high, and much like the base of an unfinished steeple of rude architecture, covered by a sort of dome. It stands before the gate of a Mahomedan dirgah of eminent sanctity among the Lubbies of these parts, and around it are four similar and smaller minars, and diverse mosques, erected by the nabobs of the Carnatic and other pious individuals, all curiously white-washed, and in high order. There is a spacious road from Nagore to Negapatam, shaded by extensive orchards of coco-nut and other fruit-trees, where half-way between the two towns are the buildings occupied by the commercial resident and the collector of the Tanjore district.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NAGORE (*Nagara*).—A Rajpoot district in the province of Ajmeer, subject to Joudpoor, situated principally between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. The town of Nagore stands in lat. 27° 8′ N., lon. 73° 33′ E., about sixty-eight miles N.N.E. from Joudpoor, and in 1807 was the only place of importance possessed by the adherents of Dhokul Singh, the young and legitimate pretender to the Joudpoor throne.

This place is built on a bank of conker, which produces nothing for more than a mile round a great part of the city; and the view to the westward is equally dreary, being a succession of barren sand-hills, spotted with brown and blasted bushes. Water is scarce, and from 150 to 200 feet under the surface.

NAGORE RIVER.—This is one of the principal arms of the Cavery, which separates from the main stream about ten miles below the city of Tanjore, and afterwards divides into two branches, which enter the sea at the towns of Nagore and Negapatam respectively, forming the harbours of these places.

NAGOTAMA.—A large and respectable town in the province of Aurungabad, situated about thirty-five miles up the river that joins the sea, between the southern point of Caranja and Tull point, about thirty-seven miles S.S.E. from Bombay; lat. 18° 30′ N., lon. 73° 16′ E. The road from hence to Poona leads through several large and populous villages up the Koarree ghaut, and can without much difficulty be made practicable for wheeled carriages. In consequence of these facilities, the Bombay government in 1818 had it in contemplation to abandon the old route to Poona by Panwell and up the Boorghaut, and to forward the public stores, &c. by the route of Nagotama, which, besides other advantages, would reduce the distance of land-carriage about eighteen miles.

At this place there is a remarkable stone bridge of admirable masonry, built about 240 years back by a Mahomedan named Khauja Alla ud Deen of Choul, at an expense of three lacks of rupees. Length, 480 feet; breadth within the parapet, ten feet; span of the main arch, twenty-three feet; height from the bottom of the river, nineteen feet. So substantial is this fabric, that in 1821 the engineer reported that an outlay of 2,500 rupees (which was granted) would enable it to stand for a considerable number of years.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

NAGORECOTE.—See KANGRA.

NAGPOOR DISTRICT.—A district in the Bhoonsla dominions formed in 1819 by the British functionaries, and consisting of lands lying adjacent to the city of Nagpoor. In 1826 the Nagpoor and Wyne Gunga districts, although reckoned the most cultivated

in the raja's dominions, were considered by the British superintendent as one-third occupied by jungle, and an equal extent by a hilly and barren tract. There are several fine tanks, particularly one near the city, and another at Ramtek. The Hindoo population of this district, including Mahomedans and outcastes, is divided into 119 different castes. The total male population in 1825 was about 249,884 persons. The greater number of tribes trace their origin to the different parts of Berar and the Deccan generally, and it appears from their traditions that fifty-three tribes are from Berar, twenty-three from Hindostan Proper, twelve from Telingana, nineteen itinerant; and that three tribes of Brahmins, the Mahomedans and Vidoors, are from different parts of India indiscriminately.

The Hindoo outcastes in this district comprehend the four divisions of Mhers or Dhers, Chumars, Maungs, and Bhungies. The Mhers outnumber the others in the proportion of eight to one; many of the Dhers are weavers. In Choteesghur besides those above named are the Khundaris, Gondas, Punkas, and Gusseah tribes of outcastes, and in Chanda the Majee and Katicks. Owing to this endless diversity of caste among the Hindoos, persons are usually little acquainted beyond their own immediate tribes, being assisted also by professed genealogists, who under the name of Pooshtakas, Gooroos, and Bhauts, keep registers of the kools or tribes of each caste, and of their gotree or pedigree, some knowledge of which is requisite for the regulation of intermarriages. Similar subdivisions into kools subsist among the Gonds and outcastes, and they have the same variety of prohibitions with respect to intermarriages, the result of vanity and priestcraft. The Gonds have their bards called Oojahs, who sing the exploits of their chiefs, and even the unclean Dhers have their classes of genealogists and eulogists.

The terms Gowala and Aher are here indiscriminately applied to the whole class of cowherds, the greater portion of whom trace their origin to Hindostan Proper. Almost every one claims a high descent, and traces his pedigree through the petty rajas to some of the gods.

The food of the lower classes here consists of the cheapest and coarsest grains, and exhibits little change all the year round. The consumption of animal food is very limited, but is abstained from by the great mass of the people, more on account of its expense than from religious motives; indeed out of 111 tribes only eighteen entirely reject it. Many of the cultivating classes have no objections to the flesh of the wild hog, but except at feasts and festivals, they rarely taste animal food, and all classes of Brahminical Hindoos abstain from it on particular days. The classes that eat much animal food are also usually addicted to the drinking of spirituous liquors, females as well as men. There is little demand for the labour of mechanics, as almost every villager builds and furnishes his own house without the assistance of masons, carpenters, or blacksmiths.

The Brahmins of the Nagpoor district profess to respect equally Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, but nine-tenths of them, nevertheless, are considered to be followers of Siva the destroying power, who is their peculiar object of adoration, as well as of the cultivators and lower classes, the latter increasing their pantheon by the addition of demigods, demons, and malignant spirits. Religious rites and ceremonies, however, occupy little of the time of the common cultivator, except during the periodical feasts and festivals, when the rural deities are worshipped, and while performing pilgrimages to the sacred fanes. Almost every peasant has an assortment of household gods, usually little images of Siva, Devi, and Khundeba, a partial incarnation of Vishnu. All the working classes on stated days sacrifice and perform worship to the implements by which they gain their daily subsistence. Bankers and merchants perform worship to their ledgers, and hoards of treasure; revenue

servants to the public records and fiscal documents of their respective departments. The grand place of pilgrimage is the temple of Ramtek, but in every district there is one or more holy places frequented by the people of its immediate neighbourhood. Out of 453 temples in the Nagpoor dominions, only fifteen are maintained by the government, at an expense of 11,000 rupees per annum. At Guwur, forty miles south of Nagpoor, there is a hill supposed to contain the tomb of the celebrated Sheik Fereed, a Mahomedan saint almost equally respected by the Hindoos, and visited annually by the Nagpoor rajas; but there are no other Mussulmaun shrines of note.

The Brahmins here are mild and courteous in their manners, particularly in the presence of their superiors; but in their intercourse with their inferiors they are rapacious and arrogant. They are quick and penetrating, adepts at flattery and dissimulation, with an imperturbable command of temper. They are not naturally cruel, yet to gratify the incessant craving of their avarice, which is insatiable, they do not scruple to employ torture and the most atrocious inflictions. Their venality is so inherent, that if they recommend a relation for employment under government they either force him to give security, or hire a person to watch his proceedings. Such are their vices. On the other hand the Brahmins are quiet, orderly, sober, and intelligent, kind to their females, and fond of their children.

The manners of the lower classes both in the city and country are rougher than those of the Brahmins, but more pleasing to Europeans. The most remarkable feature in the general Maharatta character is the little regard they pay to pomp and ceremony in the business of common life. A peasant or mechanic, when summoned before his superior, will sit down of his own accord, tell his story, and converse on terms of equality, and set forth his claims with a loud and boisterous voice. Their expressions are often indelicate, and many of the proverbs they are in the habit of introducing into their conversation, filthy or indecent. Although all classes evince the utmost disregard to truth, they are not given to drunkenness, robbery, or murder, the Gonds, outcasts, and other low tribes being the chief perpetrators of capital crimes. Careless about human life when their passions are to be gratified, they meet their subsequent fate with the greatest indifference. Since the British interference the numerous gangs of professional robbers, the prior scourge of the country, have been almost extirpated. The low castes who are addicted to drinking are also notorious for their ill-treatment of their women and children, the other castes being rather mild and temperate in their domestic conduct. Generally speaking the Maharatta females are under little personal restraint, and are allowed to visit their relations for days and weeks without restriction or supervision.

The temples and houses in this district are of an inferior description, yet the stone-masons of Nagpoor are above mediocrity, and good materials abound. When the skill of the sculptor, however, is required, recourse is had to the holy city of Benares, or to some other noted workshop for the manufacture of idols, either for ready-made ones, or for artists capable of carving them. The modern temples in the vicinity of Nagpoor are much superior to the older, but still very inferior to the ancient religious structures of Gurra Mundela, Choteesghur, and Chanda, where fine specimens both of sculpture and architecture are still to be found. The villages (for there are no towns) in the vicinity of Nagpoor city, are usually clusters of miserable huts huddled together, their lanes filled with filth and rubbish, and the approaches strewed with the skeletons, carcasses, and bones of defunct animals.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

NAGPOOR.—A large town in the province of Gundwana, the capital

of the Bhoonsla Maharattas; lat. 21° 9′ N., lon. 79° 11′ E. It has generally been supposed that Nagpoor is the capital of Berar; but this is a mistake, the inhabitants considering Berar to be an adjoining province, the capital of which is Ellichpoor.

In the immediate neighbourhood of Nagpoor the absence of trees and enclosures gives the country a bare appearance; but in other parts, especially in the vicinity of the hills, plantations of tamarind, mangoe, and other fruit-trees, with detached patches of jungle and mowah trees, render its aspect less sterile. The elevation of Nagpoor, or rather of Taklee, which is near to it, has been found to be 1,101 feet above the level of the sea, but the general level of the plain may be estimated at 1,050 feet. The country declines towards Bhundara, and also towards the north, rising again near the base of the ghauts to the level of Nagpoor. In the hot season this city has a most decided advantage over many other stations, the nights being almost invariably cool and pleasant, while in the cold season the thermometer falls so low as sometimes to produce hoar frost and natural ice.

The site of the town is low, and was formerly swampy, which has been partly corrected by the construction of tanks and conduits, yet it is still very wet and muddy during the rains. It is seven miles in circumference, and of a very irregular straggling figure The principal streets, except one, are narrow, mean, and dirty, intersected by many lanes and water-courses, which last during the rains swell to torrents frequently impassable, while the great number of trees mixed with the huts and houses give it at a distance the appearance of a large wood; all circumstances adverse to health and cleanliness. As the seat of a court and capital Nagpoor might have been expected to contain some tolerable specimens of architecture, of which, however, it is totally destitute. The raja's palace is the most substantial edifice, but has not any pretensions to beauty or splendour, and does not even present the imposing effect which usually accompanies large masses of masonry, being completely choked up by mud and thatched huts close under the walls, and a considerable portion of it being still unfinished, and likely to remain so. Some of the principal chiefs and bankers have large houses of brick and mortar, with flat roofs; but these for the greater part are old and dilapidated. In 1825 this city contained

Matted huts of the worst description	48
Thatched ditto, of a better kind	14,680
Tiled houses	11,120
Houses built of masonry	1,301
Total	27,149

According to the census of 1825 the population of Nagpoor and its suburbs amounted to 115,228 persons.

The trade and manufactures of Nagpoor have evidently declined since 1818, but in fact it never ranked very high in the commercial scale. This falling-off has been partly attributed to the great and sudden reduction of the population by the dethroning of Appa Saheb, the dispersion of his army, and the cessation of a profuse court expenditure. The cloth manufacturers also suffered greatly by the extinction of the Poona empire, as from twelve to fourteen lacks worth were formerly exported to that capital, whereas in 1825 only three lacks worth went there, and about one and a half lacks to the ex-Peshwa and his adherents at Bittoor. The bankers and money-changers, however, have greatly benefited, as they now escape the capricious exactions of the native ruler, Ragojee the second, in particular, had recourse to the most iniquitous methods, even to the planning and directing of robberies to be committed on certain individuals possessing considerable sums of ready money who had declined the honour of being his highness's creditors. As may be readily supposed, the monied interest here, as throughout India, goes wholly

with the British government, and no less than fifteen new banking-houses have been established at Nagpoor since its functionaries assumed the management of the country.

The reigning family and the officers and pensioners of the late and present government form the highest class or gentry of the city. The manners of the reigning family, and the Maharatta chiefs in general, partake much of the plainness and simplicity of the peasantry, a little modified by the more polished demeanour of the Brahmins. With respect to morals, what has been said regarding the Brahmins of the district applies in a more aggravated degree to those of the court and capital, while it may be safely affirmed that no where are more depraved habits to be found than within the precincts of the palace. In fact, the most respectable persons are to be found in the mercantile community, consisting principally of Marwaries, Bohrahs, Berewars, and Gosains. The common people are grossly ignorant and superstitious, and so addicted to lying that they are not to be believed, even on their oaths, unless their testimony be corroborated by circumstantial evidence or collateral proof. Suicide is so common in Nagpoor, that from June 1823 to December 1825 not less than seventy-five cases occurred, generally from causes of a very trifling nature, such as petty domestic quarrels among relations. It is also resorted to as a means for procuring revenge for injuries real or supposed, and is usually effected by poison, jumping into wells, or hanging.

In this country slavery is little known, it being only the richer classes that possess slaves, chiefly females, who have been purchased while children, and generally well treated. In 1825 the number in the city of Nagpoor amounted to about 1,288 purchased and 1,296 bonded slaves, besides those belonging to the raja and nobility, who declined giving any return; the whole amounting to about 3,500, which, however, may be considered as only an approximation to the real number. When a slave commits a crime that requires severe chastisement, he is carried before a court of justice, or turned out of the house by his master and emancipated, the last being by them considered a punishment instead of a favour. Indeed it may be affirmed that slavery, in the European sense of the word, is altogether unknown, and that so far from being a state of degradation and misery, it is one of respectability and comfort, compared with that of the labouring population.

Reading, writing, and accounts are the usual objects of education, and these are only taught to the extent thought necessary for each individual profession. Brahmins are the only readers of books, mostly on Hindoo divinity; but the knowledge of Sanscrit is rare even among this class. There is no allowance for schools, either in land or money, from the government, the attention of which has never been drawn to the encouragement of public education. In 1825 there were in the city and suburbs 102 instructors, including teachers at public schools, private tutors, and others who instruct scholars gratuitously as a public duty.

Travelling distance 321 miles; from Oojein 340; from Poona 486; from Delhi 631; from Madras 673; from Calcutta 733; and from Bombay 577.—(*Jenkins, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

NAGPOOR.

(Nagapura, the town of serpents).

A Maharatta kingdom in the Deccan, formerly of great extent, but since 1818 limited to the following districts *viz.*

1st. Deoghur above the ghauts.

2d. Deoghur below the ghauts.

3d. The Wyne Gunga district and Lanjee.

4th. Chandah.

5th. Choteesghur and its dependencies.

The general situation of these territories is between 18° 40′ and 20° 40′ north latitude, and 78° 20′ and

83° east longitude. Their extreme length is about 450 miles from north to south, and the total area in square miles, as computed by Col. Blacker, about 70,000. Its general aspect may be described as mountainous and woody, interspersed with occasional tracts of cultivated land of various forms and sizes. The east and south-east quarters are particularly mountainous, and inhabited by wild tribes, chiefly Gonds, who pay only a tribute or quit rent, and exercise almost independent power within their own boundaries.

Taking for a guide the system of its rivers, the country again seems to divide itself naturally into two parts. The first comprehends the western districts, watered by the Wyne Gunga and Wurdah rivers, and their tributaries, that is to say, the whole of the Nagpoor territories west of the Lanjee hills; the second includes Choteesghur and its dependencies, watered by the Mahanuddy river and its subsidiaries. The beds of the larger rivers are usually confined by high steep banks, becoming less abrupt where the country is open and level. The channels are sandy, crossed in many parts by ledges of rock, sand-banks, and shallows, which render them not navigable soon after the conclusion of the rains. During the rainy season, however, they may be navigated by rafts and loaded boats, but they have not hitherto been much used for the purpose of commerce.

The springs of the different rivers furnish some natural pieces of water, such as the coond or pool at Omerkuntuc, from whence the Nerbudda rises, which pool, as also those at the sources of the Sone and Wyne Gunga, have been built up as tanks. The first indications of the Mahanuddy river are some pools of considerable size and depth, kept full the whole year by the moisture of the neighbouring plains; and at the top of the first table-land between Omerkuntuc and Ruttunpoor there are very deep and extensive bogs, whence the Arf and other streams that flow through Choteesghur take their rise. The largest artificial tanks and in the greatest number are to be found in the districts east of the Wyne Gunga. The most deserving of notice, art having had little to do with their construction, are those called the Noagong-bund, and the Seonee-bund of Sahungurry. The first is about twenty-four miles in circumference, and is formed by two embankments of small extent. The circumference of the Seonee-bund is only six miles; but both assist the cultivation of the sugar-cane and rice, with which products the districts east of the Wyne Gunga abound.

In the hills on the confines of Deoghur above the ghauts, good teak and a great variety of other timber-trees are produced, and afterwards floated down the rivers Peeh and Kanhaun to the British cantonments at Campti, near the city of Nagpoor. In the Lanjee range timber of a still larger size is found, and brought into the Wyne Gunga by means of the small streams that flow into it from the eastward. Timber of a similar description and in considerable quantity is found in Chandah, and in Deoghur above the ghauts, but from the absence of water transport has not hitherto been made available. Teak is not abundant in Choteesghur, but in Bustar is found in large quantities. The rall or rosen-tree and other large wood is obtained in the forest of Kakair and in the hills north of Ruttunpoor. The saul attains a considerable size, and is the commonest tree observed in the Omerkuntuc range.

The grains produced in the greatest quantities are wheat, chuna, jowary, and rice. The two first are raised almost every where; jowary principally in the vicinity of Nagpoor; rice in the Wyne Gunga, Chanda, and Choteesghur districts. The pulses are of various kinds common to the rest of India. A great variety of gums are produced in the jungles, particularly those of Lanjee and Choteesghur, where the gums of different trees after being mixed to-

gether are used as food or converted into sweetmeats. Large quantities of these gums are also exported, and some are said to possess valuable medicinal properties. The cultivated dyes are safflower, morinda, and turmeric, and others are procured among the natural productions of the jungle. Indigo, although not uncommon in its wild state, has never been cultivated; the oil plants are the same as in other quarters of the Deccan.

There are no metals extracted from the earth in any considerable quantities except iron, the ore of which is found in the Lanjee district, at Oomeer, in Deoghur above the ghauts, in Chanda, and in most of the hilly tracts. Gold-dust in very small quantities is found in the Jonk river near to Sonakhau, in Choteesghur, and in the rivers of Lanjee. A caste in the last mentioned country procure a miserable subsistence by collecting and washing the sand of the river, separating the gold particles afterwards by means of quicksilver. The diamond mines of Wyraghur were formerly celebrated, but they do not now yield adequate returns, and have in consequence been abandoned. At Dongaree, Pallorah, and Parseeance, marbles are found capable of receiving a fine polish; and at Korasu near Nagpoor, a magnesian marble is much used in building. Talc is also found in different quarters, and red-ochre dug out from the Lanjee hills is exported and used for domestic purposes. Lime-stone abounds, but good clay for making bricks is scarce. The other productions of the Nagpoor dominions are cotton, sugar-cane, hemp, tobacco, ganja, opium, arrow-root, betel-leaf, bees'-wax, and a great deal of wild coarse silk called tusser.

Few good horses are now bred in this country, which is not considered favourable to the rearing of that valuable and ill-used animal. Indeed, except the raja's own stud, and those of a few Maharatta chiefs, there are scarcely any breeding establishments. Foreign importations of horses from Upper Hindostan and the Deccan have long ceased, except a few Arabs brought to the British cantonments. The Berar rajas were formerly famed for their excellent horses, but few now remain. Bullocks and buffaloes are reared in great numbers, but the first are of an inferior quality, and frequently swept away by contagious distempers. Many are in consequence imported from the northward, and from the British grazing district of Doongertaul. Buffaloes, though large and indigenous to the country, are not numerous. The country above the ghauts was formerly noted for its herds of cattle, but they have long disappeared, partly owing to the havock of war and partly to the great demand for agricultural purposes, in consequence of which the prices of working cattle have nearly doubled since 1817.

In this quarter of India there are three well distinguished seasons, the cold, the hot, and the rainy. The decidedly cold months are November, December, and January; February is mild and pleasant, March becomes warmer, and the hot winds blow in April, May, and until the first general fall of rain in June; but for some time after the weather is still close and sultry. In July, August, and September, except during the rains, the air is clear and comfortable to the feelings. In the cold season the thermometer falls very low, and in the small shallow tanks on the table-land, elevated about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, to the north of Nagpoor, natural ice is frequently obtained. On the same, or nearly the same level, a few marches eastward, the thermometer has been observed at sun-rise below the freezing point, while the grass and stumps of trees are covered with hoar-frost. Rain falls occasionally during every month in the year, but except while the regular monsoon prevails it is very partial, and sometimes only a single shower. Although the north-east monsoon influences the winds it does not bring

much rain. Hail-stones are common in January and February, when they frequently do much damage to the crops.

The internal commerce of this kingdom is small, consisting chiefly of the necessaries of life, cloths, &c. imported into the city of Nagpoor, which receives besides, salt, saltpetre, metals, coco-nuts, spices, &c.; the chief exports are cloths, raw cotton, goor, grain, and a small quantity of stickiac. The trade with Mirzapoor and Benares, in silks, brocades, muslins, &c., is chiefly conducted by Gosain merchants, domiciled at Nagpoor, many of whom were men of great wealth; but the restoration of general tranquillity has greatly diminished their profits, by opening new and safe roads to merchants of small capital. Oxen and buffaloes are generally used for the carriage of goods, more especially the first. A considerable traffic has always subsisted between Nagpoor and Poona. Under the late government the rate of interest was three and four per cent. per month, and never less than two per cent., even on pledges or the best security. In 1825 the rate still continued two per cent. on the best securities, while artizans, mechanics, and cultivators paid still more.

Under the Maharatta government, a good groundwork for a census of the people existed in the Khana Shumari, or annual enumeration of the houses of each district, with a specification of the castes and professions of each householder, for the purpose of adjusting the dues of government. A census was ordered by the resident in 1819, on which occasion there was no reluctance shewn by the inhabitants to furnish information, except in Choteesghur, where the jealousy of the people respecting their females, and other prejudices from the supposed fatality of a census, prevailed to such an extent, as to preclude an accurate or effectual enumeration. In 1825 the following was considered a tolerably close approximation to the real number.

Deoghur below the ghauts (6,000 square miles) ...	572,792
The Wyne Gunga district	690,770
Choteesghur	639,603
Chanda	306,996
Deoghur above the ghauts	145,363
City and suburbs of Nagpoor.......................	115,228
Total	2,470,752
consisting of:	
Hindoos of various castes	2,120,795
Mahomedans	58,365
Gonds	291,603
Total	2,470,766

The Gondy language is spoken more or less throughout the whole extent of the Nagpoor province. It has no peculiar written character. The Gonds in the government lands of Deoghur above the ghauts, compose more than one-fourth of the whole population, but their numbers have not been ascertained in the tributary zemindaries. In Deoghur below the ghauts they are not more than one-third; in the Wyne Gunga district one-seventh; in Chanda one-fourteenth; and in Choteesghur about one-twenty-fifth of the whole population; but there are a larger proportion in Bustar, Kuronde, and the other dependencies of Choteesghur and Chanda. The languages most generally prevailing in these districts are, in Deoghur above the ghauts, a mixture of the Rangri or Hindi of Malwa and the Maharatta, with the Gondy and Maharatta languages. The two first are common to the whole population, whilst the Gondy and Goalee are familiar only to the peculiar tribe to which they belong. In Deoghur below the ghauts the Maharatta is the prevalent language. Besides the Gondy, Telinga is also spoken by some tribes of artizans, and there are several other petty tribes speaking distinct tongues. In the Wyne Gunga district Maharatta is the most common language; in Chanda, the Maharatta and Telinga. The primitive inhabitants of Choteesghur speak either the Gondy or Choteesghuree,

which is a mixture of Gondy and Hindostany. In Kuronde, the Koand dialect (a mixture of Gondy and Ooriya) is spoken. The Maharatta is the language of the city and court of Nagpoor, and of all the government functionaries throughout the kingdom.

The armies of the Nagpoor state were seldom recruited within its own limits, the cavalry consisting mostly of Poona and Decanny Maharattas and Mahomedan adventurers, while the infantry consisted of Arabs, Gosains, and Purdeses. It seems remarkable that so very few of the military adventurers who accompanied the first Ragojee from Berar, should have fixed themselves permanently in the Nagpoor dominions, and it seems probable that this absence of a distinct race of native soldiers, so numerous elsewhere, contributed considerably to the speedy and effectual settlement of the country, besides saving the expense of providing for a troublesome and turbulent class of individuals; in fact, the Maharatta soldiers do not seem ever to have considered this country as their home. The total amount of the Nagpoor revenue in 1825-26 was 47,45,379 rupees. The civil charges were 9,03,526 rupees; military charges 18,90,229; the expenses of the religious establishments, jaghires, pensions of the raja and his court, &c. 16,70,404; leaving a balance of 2,81,220 rupees of the receipts above the expenditure.

It is probable that, at a remote period, of the countries which now form the Nagpoor dominions, a great proportion of the northern parts were subject to the Gond rajas, who reigned in Kherlah near Baitool, while the tracts above the ghauts were possessed by petty Gond rajas tributary to the princes of Gurra Mundela, until the latter were overturned by the Mahomedans in the reign of Acber. Of the districts between the Wurda and the Lanjee hills, some were subject to Gowala chiefs, some to the Deccany dynasties, and others subdued by the powerful Gond rajas of Deoghur.

The early history of the Nagpoor Bhoonsla family is obscure, and their pretensions to defined relationship with the Sevajee sovereigns of the early Maharatta empire have either sunk into oblivion, or were never seriously believed. The first Ragojee's appointment to Berar (then, and still a province of undefined limits) is usually referred to A.D. 1731, but he came to Nagpoor in 1738, when he destroyed the Gond Raja of Deoghur, then possessor of Nagpoor, set up several competitors for the throne, and finally occupied it himself, fixing his capital at Nagpoor, then a place of little note, about 1743. Ragojee the first died in 1755, leaving four sons, Janojee, Subajee, Moodhajee, and Beembajee. He was succeeded by the first, but dissensions arising, the districts were partitioned among them; Janojee, however, the oldest son, ultimately acquired the ascendant, and in 1763, in conjunction with the Nizam, took and sacked Poona, the capital of his own nation. He died in 1772, and many contests ensued between Beembajee and Moodhajee until 1788, when the throne was ascended by Ragojee Bhoonsla the second, under the regency of his father, Moodajee.

In the succession to the throne it seems to have been admitted that the reigning prince had the right to nominate his successor, even to the exclusion of the legitimate heir; but in practice the latter, unless universally disliked, would almost always prevail. The legitimate heir in any given case is always the nearest in the male line, the female line being considered as almost totally removed from any pretensions to the succession, unless by adoption into the name and family of the reigning prince.

For a series of years the policy of this state was to interfere as little as possible with the concerns of the neighbouring potentates, and for a long time its internal dissensions furnished its sovereigns with sufficient occupation. The territories over which they ostensibly reigned being

of great extent, wild, and desolate, presented many obstacles and few attractions to the cupidity of their neighbours; they in consequence remained for many years exempt from external warfare. At length, in 1803, Ragojee Bhoonsla in an evil hour was induced to depart from this system of neutrality, and joined Dowlet Row Sindia in a confederacy against the British government. The signal defeats they sustained from General Wellesley at Assye and Argaum, soon compelled the Bhoonsla to sue most earnestly for peace, which was granted on the 17th December 1803, when a treaty was concluded, which involved large cessions of the Nagpoor dominions, and shook the state to its basis. By the conditions of this treaty the large district of Cuttack, including the port and pergunnah of Balasore, were ceded to the British government, while the Nizam received all the territory of which he collected the revenue in conjunction with the Nagpoor raja, whose western frontier was in consequence defined by the river Wurda, from whence it issues from the Injardy hills to its junction with the Godavery. The hills on which Gawelghur and Nernallah stand, with a contiguous district of four lacks, were allowed to remain with the raja, who agreed to refer any disputes he might have with the Nizam to the arbitration of the British government.

Ragojee Bhoonsla continued to reign over his remaining territories, the resources of which were progressively diminishing, and his danger from the impending hordes of Pindaries augmenting. In 1808 the Bengal government had a plan in agitation for the protection of the Nagpoor dominions and the eastern part of Berar, by a joint system of operations to be undertaken by the Nagpoor and Hyderabad governments; but to get these infatuated states to act rationally or in concert was found impracticable. The views of the raja were at that time bent on the conquest of Bhopaul, for the attainment of which every nerve was strained, while the protection of his own country against the attacks of the Pindaries, who even fired his capital, was wholly neglected. Under these circumstances, the irruption of Ameer Khan, in 1809, would have terminated the political existence of this dynasty, had not the British government interfered to prevent it by a simultaneous movement from Hindostan and the Deccan, on which occasion a Bengal and Madras army met for the first time north of the Nerbudda.

While thus indifferent about his external relations, Ragojee was busily employed within in the amassing of treasure, which was principally effected through the agency of a person named Dhermajee, who for many years had charge of that portion of his territory, including the city of Nagpoor, which the raja retained under his own management, and also of his highness's private trade, which was very extensive in almost every branch. Exclusive of these resources, this individual conducted the open and authorized robberies committed in every shape on the property of subjects and strangers, which were latterly carried on to an extraordinary extent. With these facilities Dhermajee amassed about a crore of rupees, ostensibly his own; but it is difficult to suppose that a prince so sharpsighted in money matters, would have quietly permitted such an accumulation, and it was consequently suspected that his highness covered many of his own depredations under his minister's name. The result of such a nefarious system was experienced in 1817, at which period the Nagpoor subjects along the banks of the Nerbudda were found as averse to the restoration of tranquillity as the Pindaries were, and the raja's own troops more refractory than either. When a plundering party crossed the Nerbudda from the north to make an incursion into the British territories, it was immediately joined by many of the inhabitants, so that as the banditti proceeded south their numbers increased.

Ragojee Bhoonsla died on the 22d March 1816, when his son and legitimate successor, Persojee Bhoonsla, was placed on the throne. The blindness and notorious imbecility of this prince, owing to paralytic affections, placed the struggle for power between Appa Saheb, the late raja's nephew, and a party headed by Buka Bhye, one of his wives, in conjunction with Dhermajee, the treasurer already mentioned. Appa Saheb, sensible of the powerful means possessed by his opponents, from the beginning eagerly sought the support of a British connexion, and made overtures accordingly to Mr. Jenkins, the resident. After some negotiation, Appa Saheb made secret arrangements, seized the person of Dhermajee, and was installed regent under Persojee, who evinced some alacrity in extorting the wealth they had accumulated from the treasures of his adherents. Appa Saheb, after his success, continued as urgently as before to solicit the alliance of the British government, and in 1816 a treaty for the maintenance of a subsidiary force and contingent was accordingly arranged in the most amicable manner. The resources of the Nagpoor state were then estimated at sixty or, including the regent's revenue, at seventy lacks of rupees per annum. Soon after Persojee, the blind and paralytic raja, died (as was then supposed) a natural death, when his wife Casi Bhye ascended the funeral pile, and burned along with the body: but after Appa Saheb's deposition, when access was obtained to the females and servants of the interior, it was positively ascertained that Persojee had been strangled on the morning of the 1st of February 1817, having previously refused poison because it was bitter.

Appa Saheb was immediately proclaimed by the name of Moodhajee the second; but it was soon discovered that while exhausting himself in solemn protestations of devoted friendship to the British, he was actively engaged in all the intrigues of the Peshwa, and meditated an attempt on the life of the resident on the part of the British government accredited at his court. In prosecution of this treachery his army, estimated at 10,000 infantry (of whom between 3,000 and 4,000 were Arabs), and an equal number of horse, on the 26th November 1817 attacked the British detachment under Colonel Scott, consisting of 1,350 men, then encamped on the Seetabuldee hills. A most trying contest ensued, which was closed about noon on the 27th November, having lasted eighteen hours without intermission, the result proving the insignificance of numerical superiority against discipline and valour. The British loss was 333 killed and wounded, including four officers, and the resident's first assistant killed, and seven wounded. Finding his villanous efforts ineffectual, Appa Saheb's courage, of which he had no large stock, failed him, and he sued for peace, which was granted, and continued until he was detected a short time afterwards in a new conspiracy, when the instinctive principle of self-preservation demanded his removal from the throne. His army, however, still continued to resist, and to defend the batteries where they were attacked, and after considerable loss compelled to capitulate by the forces under General Doveton. In this manner the military operations against the Nagpoor state terminated on the 30th December 1817, in little more than a month after the date of the raja's defection.

After the experienced treachery of Appa Saheb, it was determined to exercise a complete control over him, and certain tracts, equal to twenty-four lacks of revenue, north and south of the Nerbudda, were appropriated in lieu of the subsidiary force. These consisted of Mooltye, Alnu, Pawlee, Seoneghur, Maindee, Baitool, Musood, Mundelah, Seonee, Chuppara, Akote, &c.; Choraghur, Jubbulpoor, and Puttun, to the south of the Nerbudda; Sumbhulpoor, Sohagepoor, Sirgoojah, Jushpoor, &c. to the north. Before the end

of January 1818, with the exception of the forts of Chouraghur and Mundela, the whole had been brought under subjection, and furnished considerable resources for existing exigencies, and have since been arranged in districts under British functionaries. The country remaining to the raja after these cessions were calculated to leave a revenue of forty-two lacks, but the Nagpoor ministers did not expect to realize more than thirty-five lacks.

The European reader will scarcely believe that after submitting to be reinstated on the throne of Nagpoor by the hands of the British resident, Appa Saheb should instantaneously commence a new series of intrigues for the overthrow of the British power. Having this in contemplation, he not only consented with great apparent willingness to all the terms proposed, but even proffered more than was asked. Without occupying too much space, it would be impossible to narrate the complication of plots through which he attempted to connect his hostile machinations with those of the Peshwa. Strong suspicion had been originally excited by the discovery that instead of bringing his treasures back to Nagpoor along with the females of his family, he had secretly issued orders to have the greater part carried to Chanda and other fortresses. From many years' experience, the British diplomatists at the native courts were quite practised at the development of similar mysteries, which, although arranged with much apparent subtlety, are easily discovered, generally through the intervention of the native agents employed to conduct them. A profusion of documents directly implicating the raja being obtained, Mr. Jenkins determined to anticipate the danger by placing him under close arrest, which was accordingly effected, without rendering it necessary to enter the apartments reserved for the women. Nagoo Punt and Ram Chunder Wagh, the two chief ministers, were also confined, and spontaneously confessed the multiplicity of intrigues going on; the circumstances attending the murder of Raja Persojee, were also then for the first time disclosed.

All future confidence in Appa Saheb being utterly hopeless, he was, with his two ministers, despatched for Allahabad on the 3d May 1818. On the 12th of that month he arrived at Rychore, one days' march from Jubbulpoor, whence he effected his escape. Before long it was ascertained that he had fled to *Heraee*, about forty miles south-west of Rychore, and thence to the Mahadeo hills, where he was harboured and concealed by the Gonds, and more especially by a chief of considerable influence named Chyne Sah. By the close of the rains he managed to collect a few followers round his standard, from the dispersed army of Bajerow and the Arabs expelled from Candeish. Thus reinforced he gave considerable trouble, for no country was ever better adapted for the carrying on of a desultory warfare than the one he had chosen for his asylum, the whole being a complete succession of mountains, ravines, rivers, and jungles, and experience has proved how easily under such circumstances a desultory warfare may be prolonged.

The extensive sacrifices that had been demanded of Appa Saheb on his restoration, had left the Nagpoor state little more than half of its prior possessions, while the British control in the internal management of the remainder was specially authorized. After the treacherous defection of the ex-raja no new conditions were exacted, and his escape afterwards made no alteration in the designs of the British government. On the 25th June 1818, the grandson of the late Ragojee, then nine years of age, was placed on the throne, having, according to the Maharatta custom, been previously adopted by the widow of the last raja, to entitle him to the name of Bhoonsla. Bucha Bhye was appointed regent, and Narrain Pundit prime minister; but the general su-

perintendence of affairs was from that period assumed by the British resident, acting in the raja's name, with the assistance of British officers at the head of every department, which arrangement continued up to March 1826, when the reigning raja was in his nineteenth year. The disposition of the great body of the people to the present order of things is good; but the great majority of the public functionaries cannot of course be expected to view existing circumstances with much satisfaction. To these may be added a few of the leading potails and zemindars, who would no doubt prefer the old system, under which they enjoyed great influence; but with these exceptions it may be safely asserted, that all the other classes, and more especially the cultivators, are highly pleased with the actual government, and feel and acknowledge the benefits they now experience from the interposition of British agency between them and their native rulers.—(*Jenkins, Prinsep, Public MS. Documents, the Marquis of Hastings, Leckie, Rennell, Fitzclarence, &c.*)

NAHAN (*Nahen*).—A town in Northern Hindostan, principality of Sirmore, of which it is the capital; lat. 30° 33′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E., forty-six miles N. by W. from Saharunpoor, and elevated 3,207 feet above the level of the sea. This is a neat open town, one of the most considerable within the mountains, situated on a level spot of table-land on the summit of a lofty hill, part of the north-western boundary of the Kardeh Doon. In the neighbourhood about five miles further up is a fortress named Jampta, placed on the top of an immense conical peak. During the winter the snow at Nahan is frequently from two to three inches deep, and at Jampta from seven to eight. The valley of Nahan is sheltered from the rising and setting sun by the surrounding hills, which are not separated into parallel and separate ridges. From the top of these mountains the plains of Sirhind and Saharunpoor present a wide prospect to the south, south-east, and south-west; but the view to the north is bounded by the snowy mountains. In 1827 traces of a coal or lignite formation were discovered here.—(*Public Journals, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

NAHANPARA.—A town in the Oude territories, seventy-eight miles N.E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 50′ N., lon. 81° 27′ E.

NAIKENHULLY.—A small town in the Mysore province, pleasantly situated about twenty-one miles north-west of Chitteldroog.

NAIR.—A town in the province of Berar, twenty-one miles S.S.E. from Ellichpooor; lat. 20° 31′ N., lon. 78° 7′ E.

NAIRS.—See MALABAR PROVINCE.

NAKO.—A Tartar village in Tibet, division of Haganrang, belonging to the raja of Bussaher, situated on the left bank of the Spiti river; lat. 31° 52′ N., lon. 78° 36′ E. 11,975 feet above the level of the sea, at which enormous elevation luxuriant crops of barley, wheat, phaphen (*polygonum*), and turnips, are produced, with poplars, juniper, and willow trees of a prodigious size. The grain is sown in March and April, and reaped in August and September. A vast expanse of arid surface on every side reverberate here a surprising warmth, the consequence of which is, that although placed 3,000 feet higher than Namja, its crops arrive earlier at maturity.—(*Messrs. Gerards, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

NALAPANEE.—A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, twenty-seven miles north from Hurdwar; lat. 30° 21′ N., lon. 78° 3′ E,

NALDROOG.—A small district in the province of Beder, situated near the south-western extremity. The town of Naldroog stands in lat. 17° 44′ N., lon. 76° 23′ E., eighty miles west from the city of Beder.

NALCHA.—A town in the province

of Malwa, formerly a large place; lat. 22° 25′ N., lon. 75° 29′ E; 2,022 feet above the level of the sea. The old town, situated in a wild and mountainous country six miles N.N.W. from Mandow, has been long in ruins, but in 1820 it contained 144 houses, having been repeopled in 1819 by Sir John Malcolm, and made the head-quarters of a Bheel corps. There are still the remains here of a palace, mosque, and noble artificial lake or reservoir; and the surrounding landscape is quite luxuriant from the profusion of old mangoe and other trees. The whole route from hence to Mandow is strewed with the ruins of mosques and other public buildings, partly covered with forest jungle.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

NALGONDA.—A district in the province of Hyderabad, intersected by the Musah or Mussy river, and bounded on the south by the Krishna. Much of this tract, although capable of being rendered very productive, remains desolated and uncultivated. The town of Nalgonda stands in lat. 17° 5′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E., forty-nine miles E.S.E. from the city of Hyderabad.

NALLA MALLA MOUNTAINS.—A range of mountains in the Deccan, situated principally between 77° and 80° of east longitude. Their highest points are between Cummum in the Cuddapah district, and Amrabad, a town in the Hyderabad province north of the Krishna. They vary in height from 2,000 to 3,500 feet above the level of the sea. In a southern and south-west direction they probably extend as far as Tripetty. The breadth of this range varies, but never exceeds fifty miles. It is intersected by the Krishna and Pennar rivers, both of which appear to pass through gaps or fissures, produced by some great convulsion.—(*Voysey, &c.*)

NAMBURIES.—See ADANAD, and MALABAR.

NAMCOOL.—A town and pergunnah in the Salem province, fifty-two miles N.W. from Trichinopoly; lat. 11° 17′ N., lon. 78° 15′ E.

NAMGIA.—A Tartar village in Northern Hindostan, situated a little above the confluence of the Spiti and Sutuleje rivers, and on the left bank of the latter; lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E., elevation above the sea 8,371 feet. This is the last and most eastern village belonging to the principality of Bussaher, and in 1821 contained eight houses built of granite. There is a joola or khazaur here for crossing the river, constructed of osier twigs.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

NANAMOW.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Etaweh, fifty-two miles west from the city of Lucknow. This place stands on the right bank of the Ganges, and here is one of the principal public ferries over that river.

NANCOWRY ISLE.—One of the Nicobar islands, about twenty-five miles in circumference; lat. 7° 57′ N., lon. 93° 43′ E. The island of Comarty or Camorta lies contiguous, but being excavated by a deep bay, does not probably contain more square miles than Nancowry. The space between these two islands forms a capacious and excellent harbour; the eastern entrance of which is sheltered by another island called Trikut (Trinkutte), lying at the distance of a league. The inlet from the west is narrow, but sufficiently deep to admit the largest ships.

The soil is rich, but little cultivated. The natural productions are coconuts, papias, plantains, limes, tamarinds, betel-nut, and the mellori, a species of bread-fruit. Yams and other roots are cultivated and thrive, but rice is unknown. The mangosteen tree and pine-apples grow wild. The two islands of Comarty and Nancowry were said in 1788 to contain thirteen villages, each possessing from fifty to sixty inhabitants, and the population of both was then estimated at only 800 persons. They live mostly on the sea-shore, where

their habitations are erected on piles, frequently so near the beach as to admit of the tide flowing under them. The men are stout and well-limbed, but extremely indolent, the females being much the most active. Contrary to the usual custom in Hindostan, the women either shave their heads, or keep their hair close cropped.

The inhabitants of Nancowry are described as hospitable and honest, remarkable for their strict adherence to truth, and so well behaved, that robbery and murder among them is said to be unknown. It appears, however, they are fond of intoxication, elsewhere the parent of many crimes, which vice it is probable they learned from European visitors, with whom they have more frequent intercourse than any of the other islands: they in consequence imitate their dress, make use of a few English words which they have acquired, and know the value of a dollar. The island is also annually visited by several large prows, with Malay and Chinese crews, in quest of the edible birds'-nests so much prized in China, and also by Burmese vessels on the same errand, by the whole of whom they are robbed and insulted. The Danes long possessed a settlement on this island, which existed so late as 1791. This island is mentioned by Marco Polo about A.D. 1295.—(*G. Hamilton, Col. Colebrooke, Haensel, Collinson, &c.*)

NANDA PRAYAGA.—This is the most northerly of the five prayagas, or holy junctions, and is formed by the confluence of the Alacananda with the Nandakini, a small river flowing from the south-east; lat. 30° 20′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E., thirty-eight miles E.N.E. from Serinagur in Northern Hindostan, and 2,805 feet above the level of the sea. There was formerly a temple and small village near the spot, but no remains of either are now to be seen. A few grain-dealers occasionally fix their temporary shops here, and as a substitute for a temple in a place of such sanctity, a few loose stones are piled up, on which some Hindoo images are exposed for the adoration of pilgrims.

NANDERE (*Nandera*).—A large district in the province of Beeder, situated about the nineteenth degree of north latitude, and intersected by the Godavery river. When the institutes of Acber were compiled by Abul Fazel, in A.D. 1582, this territory was comprehended in the soubah of Berar, then of indefinite extent, under the name of Circar Telinganeh; but it was afterwards raised to the dignity of a separate province. At present it is wholly subject to the Nizam, and from its being traversed by the Godavery and many of its contributaries, is probably fertile, but like the rest of the Nizam's dominions, having been little explored by Europeans, we are very imperfectly acquainted with its condition as to agriculture and population. The principal towns are Nandere, Candhar, Mallegong, and Nirmull.

NANDERE.—A town in the province of Beeder, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the north side of the Godavery, 135 miles N.N.W. from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 19° 3′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E. At this place there is a Seik college, erected on the spot where Gooroo Govind was assassinated, which in 1818 contained 300 students, under the patronage of the Nizam's prime minister, Raja Chundoo Laul. This functionary, however, is not called a Seik, but a Sewuk, and is not of the Khalsa, but Kholasa sect; that is to say, not a follower of Gooroo Govind, the priest militant, but of Nanok Shah, the original founder of the Seik religion. This is a place of general pilgrimage to the pious of that faith, and a considerable number have also settled in the town.—(*Metcalfe, &c.*)

NANJINGODE.—A village in the Mysore territories, containing a large and celebrated temple of Siva, situated on the south bank of the river Kapini, fifteen miles south from

the city of Mysore. The resident has a house here, and a short distance further up the broad and fine stream of the Kapini is traversed by a bridge of native construction, remarkable for the solidity of its architecture, being paved with large slabs of granite, which rest on a long series of tall pointed arches, each above five feet wide, and separated from one another by piers of the same dimensions.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Nantoy.—A village in British Martaban, distant about three miles from Moulmein, situated on the banks of Attran river, which is here about 150 yards wide. In 1827 this village contained about fifty houses, the inhabitants of which, mostly emigrants from Rangoon, had settled since 1825.

Nanzereh.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty-five miles N. by E. from Merritch; lat. 17° 23′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E.

Naokoochea Tal.—A sequestered and beautiful lake situated among the mountains of Northern Hindostan, about thirty-one miles travelling distance south of Almora. See also Bheem Tal.

Napaneer.—A village in the province of Malwa, division of Omutwara; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E. Its ghurry was besieged by a Maharatta chief, Ballarow, with a battering train of cannon, but he could never manage to hit it. To the east there is a fine lake, always full.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Napeh Mew.—A small but neat town on the Aeng road from Ava to Arracan, situated on a rising ground commanding the whole surrounding plain, and during the war occupied by 3,000 Burmese militia. This is the last Burmese town or village approaching the Arracan mountains, the rest are merely hamlets of the wild tribes.—(*Trant, &c.*)

Nappah.—A town in the province of Gujerat, thirty miles N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22° 32′ N., lon. 73° 9′ E.

Narangabad (*Naringa-abad*).—A town in the province of Oude, seventy-two miles N.W. from Hyderabad; lat. 27° 46′ N., lon. 80° 18′ E.

Narrah.—A small town in the province of Delhi, twelve miles W.N.W. from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 22′ N., lon. 76° 12′ E.

Narcondam Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, situated about two degrees east of Port Cornwallis in the Andamans; lat. 13° 20′ N., lon. 94° 45′ E. This small island, which in form and shape is a perfect specimen of the volcanic cone, rises to about 2,500 feet above the sea, and may be seen eighteen leagues off. The interior does not appear to have been ever explored.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

Nardinpett.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, twenty-nine miles south-east from Hyderabad city; lat. 16° 9′ N., lon. 78° 57′ E.

Naringapatam.—A village with a large and well-built choultry in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, eight miles S.W. from Juggernauth.

Narghur.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles N.E. from Mundessor; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 75° 16′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained about 500 houses.—(*Malcolm &c.*)

Narlah (*Naralaya*).—A town in the province of Orissa, thirty-seven miles east from Buster; lat. 19° 37′ N., lon. 83° 2′ E.

Narnoul.—An ancient district in the north-western quarter of the Agra province, situated between the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude. Narnoul, the capital, stands in lat. 28° 5′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E., eighty-six miles S.W. from the city of Delhi, and is the frontier town of the Jeypoor raja. It is a place of considerable antiquity, but at present greatly reduced in size, being only one mile in length, with a small nullah or water-course through the centre. In 1805, government received an offer of 1,47,000 rupees, for the

pergunnahs of Kanoon, Kautic, and Narnoul, situated between the territories of the Macherry raja and the Shekawutty country.—(*Lieut. White, Metcalfe, &c.*)

Narrah.—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy miles west by south from Sumbhulpoor; lat. 20° 53′ N., lon. 82° 33′ E.

Narrainghur.—A small town in the province of Delhi, thirteen miles S.W. from Nahan; lat. 30° 28′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E.

Narraingunge (*Narayana Ganje*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, situated on the west side of a branch of the Brahmaputra named the Situl (or silver) Luckia, about eight miles S.E. from Dacca; lat. 23° 37′ N., lon. 90° 35′ E.

This is one of the most considerable inland trading towns in the province, and in 1810 was estimated to contain a population of above 15,000 persons. The inhabitants are nearly all commercial, and carry on a great trade in salt (of which it is the grand mart), grain, tobacco and lime, and the town exhibits a scene of bustle and activity seldom discovered in a community entirely composed of Bengalese Hindoos. A majority of the principal merchants, however, are not natives of the town, nor of the surrounding country, but accidental settlers from distant districts, who do not bring their families along with them. During the height of the rains, the adjacent tracts are almost wholly covered with water, but when within bounds the Luckia is one of the most beautiful rivers in Bengal, and presents an extraordinary scene of animated industry. Its banks are now studded with indigo factories, and being composed generally of a firm red soil, are not subject to the incessant corrosion, which those of almost every other river in Bengal are continually undergoing. One consequence of this is that the waters of the Luckia are remarkable for their transparency, and another, that its boundaries are at this day the same as when Major Rennell made his survey in 1784.

On the margins of the rivers in the vicinity of Narraingunge are the remains of many fortifications erected to repel the invasions of the Mughs of Arracan, but which do not to a scientific eye appear well calculated for the purpose intended. On the opposite side of the Luckia, a short distance further up, is a Mahomedan place of worship, named Cuddumresool, where is shewn the foot-mark of the Arabian prophet, much reverenced by the pious of that faith, who resort to it in great numbers from Dacca and the adjacent towns. A similar fiction gives sanctity to one of the mosques at Gour, and it is not uncommon in other parts of India.

Narrohote.—A town in the province of Gujerat, thirty-seven miles east from Baroda; lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 73° 59′ E.

Narsingah.—A town in the province of Orissa, sixty miles west by north from Cuttack; lat. 20° 37′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E.

Narsipoor.—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty-four miles east by north from Masulipatam; lat. 16° 21′ N., lon. 81° 51′ E.

Narwah.—A small Portuguese town in the province of Bejapoor territories of Goa, situated about four miles distant from old Goa, and formerly one of its most important dependencies.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Narwar (*Naravara*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the east side of the Sinde river, forty miles south by west from Gualior; lat. 25° 40′ N., lon. 77° 51′ E. The face of the country in this quarter of the Agra province is hilly and woody, but the soil, when properly cultivated and supplied with moisture, is extremely productive. It is intersected by the Sinde, which is the chief river; the principal towns are Narwar, Collarass, and Shepoor.

The town of Narwar makes some figure in history, having been con-

quered by the Mahomedans so early as A.D. 1251. It appears, however, to have subsequently regained its independence, as in 1509 we find it again ruled by a Hindoo prince, from whom it was taken by Sultan Secunder Lodi. At the peace concluded with the Maharattas in 1803, the fort and district of Narwar were guaranteed by the British government to Raja Umbajee Row, and its revenues were then estimated so high as ten lacks of rupees per annum. The guarantee for some reason appears to have been afterwards withdrawn, as in 1810 the place was surrendered to Dowlet Row Sindia, who had managed to corrupt the garrison. In 1818 Madhoo Singh, the ex-raja of Narwar, and Jeysingh of Ragooghur, were both at the head of predatory bands, which Sindia was quite unable to coerce.

Nassuck.—A large town and place of pilgrimage on the Godavery, principally inhabited by Brahmins, which in 1820 Mr. Elphinstone estimated to contain 30,000 inhabitants; lat. 19° 56′ N., lon. 73° 56′ E. Besides two palaces belonging to the Peshwa, this place in 1818 contained some handsome buildings with gardens and vineyards. Near Nassuck, the very seat and centre of Brahminism in the Deccan, are extensive Buddhist excavations, vulgarly called Dherm Raj Lena. They extend round a high conical hill five miles from the town, and have every character of Buddhist excavations without the slightest Hindoo vestiges: the long vaulted cave and dagop, the huge statues of the meditative curly-headed Buddha, inscriptions in the unknown character, the umbrella and snake-headed canopies, the benched palls and the numerous cells. — (*Erskine, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Nathdora (*Natha devara, the temple of the deity*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer situated about thirty-four miles north from the city of Odeypoor, lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 74° 11′ E. Here is a celebrated Hindoo temple of great sanctity, having many villages appropriated, which were always considered sacred by the contending Rajpoot and Maharatta armies. The Gossains (Hindoo devotees) carry on a considerable trade with Gujerat and Tatta, and also with the rest of Rajpootana and upper Hindostan.—(*Broughton, 6th Register, &c.*)

Natal (*or Nalar*).—A Malay town on the S.W. coast of Sumatra; lat. 0° 18′ N., lon. 99° 5′ E. The English had a settlement here from 1752 until 1823, when it was given up with all their other stations to the Dutch. There was formerly a considerable vent here for imported goods; the returns were camphor and gold, both procured from the interior. Some of the gold mines were said to be only ten miles from the factory. As it is generally received here in the form of dust, great care should be taken by strangers to have it proved before a bargain is struck. Aquafortis is the best test, but if that is not at hand it may be tried with spirits of hartshorn. The principal imports formerly were piece-goods, opium, coarse cutlery, ammunition and guns, brass-wire and chinaware. The exports gold, camphor, and some wool.—(*Marsden, Elmore, &c.*)

Nattradacotta (*Natha Radha Cata*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, sixty-eight miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 46′ N., lon. 78° 19′ E.

Nattam (*Natham*).—A considerable town in the Carnatic province, situated in the Poligar's territory, twenty miles S.E. from Dindigul; lat. 10° 12′ N., lon. 78° 19′ E.

Nattore (*Nathaver*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajeshahy, forty-three miles N.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 88° 53′ E. Appearances here favour the supposition that the Ganges once had its bed in the tract now occupied by lakes and morasses between Nattore and Jaffergunge. During the inundation there is a straight navigation of 100 miles from Dacca to this place across the jeels or shallow lakes, leaving the villages, erected on arti-

ficial mounds, and the clumps of trees, projecting out of the water, to the right and left, while the current is so gentle as scarcely to exceed half a mile per hour. Nattore is the capital of the Rajeshahy district, being the head-quarters of the judge and collector and site of the gaol, always the most prominent edifice in a Bengal collectorate. In 1819 it sustained considerable injury from the rise of the floods; indeed, at any time it owes its existence solely to the residence of the local authorities, who in 1822, intended to migrate.—(*Rennel, &c.*)

NATUNA *(great isle)*.—An island in the Eastern seas lying off the north-east coast of Borneo, about the fourth degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-four miles, by thirteen the average breadth, and is surrounded by numerous small rocky isles. Some of the high mountains on this island may be seen fifteen leagues off. It is inhabited by Malays.

NATUNAS *(north)* ISLES.—A cluster of very small islands in the Eastern seas; lat. 4° 45′ N., lon. 109° E. From October to December the best course for ships bound to China is past these islands to the north.

NATUNAS *(south)* ISLES.—A cluster of very small islands lying off the north-western coast of Borneo, about lat. 3° N., lon. 109° E.

NAUMPOOR.—A town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa; lat. 20° 43′ N., lon. 74° 18′ E., ninety-three miles S.E. from Surat. It stands on the river Moosun, which contains water the whole year. The adjacent country is fertile, and a large fair is held here once a week for the sale of country produce and manufactures. —(*Sutherland, &c.*)

NAUNDODE.—A district in the province of Gujerat, situated between the Nerbudda and Tuptee rivers, and bounded on the west by Broach; much the greater portion of this district is tributary to Maharatta chiefs, but the town and pergunnah of Naundode, which stands in lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 73° 43′ E., thirty-two miles E. by N. from Surat, is comprehended within the jurisdiction of the Broach magistrate, being the modern capital of the Rajpeepla territory.

NAUNDOOR.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, forty-two miles S. by W. from the city of that name; lat. 19° 20′ N., lon. 75° 17′ E.

NAUNDOORBAR.—A town in the province of Candeish; lat. 21° 22′ N. lon. 74° 18′ E. This was once a large town, but in 1816 was nearly in ruins, not more than 500 houses being then inhabited. It formerly belonged to the Peshwa, but was subsequently ceded to Holcar, and with the adjoining pergunnahs suffered dreadfully from the ravages of the Pindaries. There is a small river close to the town, but in the dry season it is destitute of water, which is an unfortunate deficiency, as the soil is naturally good.

The tomb of a Mahomedan saint (Seid Saddat Peer), said to have been built 750 years ago, stands conspicuous on a rocky hill, and is much resorted to by pilgrims. It was also greatly venerated by the Pindaries, who generally stopped here a few days to make offerings at his shrine, and for his sake spared the town, while they plundered the country, over which are the scattered ruins of many tombs and pagodas.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

NAUTHPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah; lat. 26° 17′ N., lon. 87° 3′ E. In 1806 it consisted of four market-places, containing 1,215 houses. During the floods it stands on the side of the Cosi river, but in the dry season very extensive banks intervene between it and the navigable stream, so that goods must be carried on carts to and from the boats at Dimiya ghaut, about five miles from Sahebgunge, where the principal merchants re-

side. At Sahebgunge there is a good Hindoo temple, dedicated to Hunimaun the gigantic monkey, who was prime minister to Rama the great emperor of India; but it has not attained much celebrity.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Nawada.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, fifty-four miles S.S.E. from Patna; lat. 24° 54′ N., lon. 85° 40′ E.

Nawaubgunge.—A town in the province of Oude, thirty-eight miles N.E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 6′ N., lon. 81° 26′ E.

Naweeghaut.—A pass in the province of Bejapoor between Rehmutpoor and Poosasader, and about twenty-one miles travelling distance S.E. from Satara. The ascent from the side of Rehmutpoor is rugged and rocky, but not very difficult, and leads to a highly cultivated plain at the summit, which slopes gently to the southward.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Neas (*or Pulo Neas*).—An island lying off Tapanooly Bay, from which it is distant about sixty miles, and the largest of the chain that skirts the western coast of Sumatra. In extreme length it may be estimated at seventy miles, by about sixteen the average breadth. Its surface is diversified by numerous hills, whose sides, as well as the subjacent plains, yield abundant crops of rice, of which large quantities are exported, Pulo Neas having become the granary of the western coast of Sumatra. It is traversed by several rivers of considerable size, capable of admitting native craft and vessels; besides which there are several good harbours on the sea-coast.

The villages are usually situated on the pinnacles of hills or other strong positions, the different clans or tribes being in a state of perpetual hostility, on which account they never quit their arms, which consist of a spear, a short sword, an oblong shield, and stiff leathern jacket. In such a condition of society, it is difficult to account for the dense population assigned to the island in 1821, viz. 250,000 persons, or about 150 to the square mile, mostly employed in agricultural vocations. Rice is the staple commodity, of which, at the above period, about 12,000 bags were exported annually. It is, however, very little used by the common people, who subsist chiefly on the sweet potatoe and other farinaceous roots, and are said to be almost unacquainted with the use of salt. Neither buffaloes, horses, nor cattle are indigenous to the island, though a few have been imported by the Malays. About 1,500 slaves are annually exported, mostly from the southern quarter, where they are purchased by the Acheenese and Chinese traders, who afterwards transport them for sale to different quarters of the archipelago, principally to Batavia. Hogs are an important article of the domestic establishment, and the most general flesh meat of the inhabitants, who feed them on coco-nuts, boiled rice, and the sweet potatoe.

The natives are an active athletic race, about the middle stature, fair as Asiatics, and with much finer features than the Malays. In the north they are much intermixed with Acheenese and Malays, but in the south all strangers are excluded. The females are not kept in a state of seclusion. Marriage by jujur (the purchase of a wife) is universal, the price varying from 60 to 500 Spanish dollars, usually paid in gold; the number is only limited by the wealth and inclination of the purchaser. The bodies of the dead are enclosed in a wooden shell or coffin, which is elevated on four posts, and there left exposed to the elements; flowering shrubs and creepers are generally planted beneath, which soon climb up and cover the coffin with foliage. The inhabitants of Neas are, without exception, the most original people that have hitherto been discovered in the Eastern archipelago, and, unlike the other tribes, not a trace of Hindoo or Mahomedanism

is to be found among them, except where the Malays have settled. They have no form of worship, and are without any institution of a religious nature, and being without prejudice or preconceived opinions on these subjects, are open to the introduction of the Christian or Mahomedan faiths; to which last, if not anticipated, they are likely to fall a prey.

In 1820 land was purchased and a British settlement formed by Sir Thomas Raffles at the south-east coast of Pulo Neas, and treaties concluded with several of the native chiefs with a view to the supression of the slave trade; but these proceedings having been disapproved of at home, the further prosecution of the plan was abandoned. — (*Malay Miscellanies, Raffles, Marsden, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

NEDDAMUNGALUM.—A considerable town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, twenty-two miles W. by S. from the city of Tanjore. It contains several choultries and Hindoo temples.

NEELAB (*blue water*).—A town in Afghanistan, situated on the western bank of the Indus, which is here deep and rapid, and its bed so contracted as to be only a stone's throw across; lat. 33° 50′ N., lon. 71° 50′ E.

NEELGHERRY MOUNTAINS (*nil ghiri, blue mountains*).—A range of mountains (named also the three Naads) in the south of India, situated N.N.W. from the town of Coimbatoor, towards the Wynaad, forming a connecting link between the eastern and western ghauts. From east to west they extend about thirty-four miles, and from north to south about fifteen miles, composing a sort of table-land, almost insulated from the eastern and western ghauts. The rivers Myar and Bhavani rise among the highest peaks. The following are the barometrical heights of some stations above the level of the sea: *viz.* Jackanairy, 5,659; Jactully, 5,976; Dimhutty, 6,041; Oota Kamund, 6,416 feet; but one of the highest peaks, named Moorchoorti Bet, has been estimated at 8,800 feet above the level of the ocean. The mean temperature of the air in April 1820 was 65° Fahrenheit, in May 64°. In fact there are here no sultry nights, a blanket being agreeable at all seasons of the year. During the cold season the minimum is 31° Fahrenheit, the maximum 59°; indeed these hills are remarkable, not only for the mildness of the climate, but also for its equability. The air here is perfectly clear, being beyond the zone of clouds and mists, while the table-land of Mysore is covered with both. The region of fever does not ascend higher than 3,500 feet; at 5,000 feet all danger is over, even from cholera. These mountains feel the influence both of the south-west and north-east monsoons; the period of the rains, however, is the most healthy season of the year. The elasticity of the air is proved by the distance to which sounds are conveyed, and its cheering effect on the animal spirits.

One remarkable feature of these mountains is their freedom from jungle, a great portion of the country being in a high state of cultivation, and what remains untilled is generally covered with fern or with the mountain gooseberry bush. The following is a tolerably correct list of the European plants and flowers found on the Neelgherries. The red and white rose, honeysuckle, white and red jasmin, myrtle, violet, balsam, marygold, geranium, and daisy; and the fruits are red and white raspberries, hill gooseberries, and strawberries. European vegetables of an excellent quality are also produced. The animals are black cattle and buffaloes, the wild elk, a species of sheep, but no tigers.

In 1821 the population was estimated at 5,000 persons, distributed into three Hindoo tribes, the Koters, Bergers, and Joders, all dwelling in separate villages. The first are a black miserable-looking race; the second, who compose the largest number of the population, are somewhat better-looking; but the last

are a superior race, equal in stature to Europeans, nearly as muscular, with regularly handsome features, and healthy constitutions. They are a pastoral people, subsisting on the produce of their buffaloes, migrating when necessary, but never settling as cultivators. The road up these mountains is now practicable for palanquins and loaded bullocks, and bungalows have been erected at different stations for the accommodation of invalids. Four days' journey from Calicut in a palanquin conveys the traveller to the loftiest summit, being a distance of eighty-five miles, but in the south-west monsoon Negapatam is the best place of departure.—(*Public MS. Reports on the Neelgherry Mountains, Dr. Gound, &c.*)

NEEMAHEIRA.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventeen miles N.W. from Neemutch; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E. In 1820 it contained 500 houses, and belonged to Ameer Khan.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

NEEMOODRA.—A village in the province of Gujerat, district of Rajpeepla, three miles to the east of which lie the celebrated cornelian mines. The country in the immediate vicinity of the mines is but little cultivated, and on account of the jungles, and their inhabitants the tigers, no human habitations are found nearer than Ruttunpoor, seven miles off. The cornelians are carried from hence to Cambay, where they are cut, polished, and formed into the beautiful ornaments for which that city is justly celebrated.—(*Copland, &c.*)

NEEMUTCH.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Mewar, thirty-six miles S. by E. from Chetore; lat. 24° 27′ N., lon. 75° E., 1,476 feet above the level of the sea. It is the head of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia, from which in 1820 he derived a revenue of 77,000 rupees. It contains a good bazar, to the north-west of which is a British cantonment. In 1823 application was made to the Governor-general for money to construct a residency at Neemutch as the most eligible station for the head-quarters of the civil and military establishments in this part of Hindostan, when 50,000 rupees were granted. Its principal recommendation was its salubrity, for materials of every description were scarce and distant. Clay fit for bricks, after the most diligent research, could not be found, and timber of every description would have to be brought by land carriage from Agra, a month's journey. In 1826 Neemutch was recommended by Sir John Malcolm to be selected as the head-quarters of the Lieutenant-governor of Malwa, on account of its equi-distance from the capitals of the principal Rajpoot and Malwa chieftains, it not being more than two days' journey from any of the important stations in Malwa and Rajpootana, and little more than 200 miles from Baroda in Gujerat.—(*Malcolm, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

NEEPATOOR.—A town in the province of Salem and Barramahal, situated on the north bank of the Panaur river, eighty-six miles W. by N. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 5′ N., lon. 78° 36′ E.

NEERA RIVER.—A considerable river in the Deccan, which rises in the Western Ghauts to the south of Poona, and passing eastward, divides the province of Aurungabad from that of Bejapoor, and falls into the Beema at Nursingur.

NEERGOOND.—A hill fort of considerable strength in the province of Bejapoor, situated between two branches of the Malpurba river, thirty-one miles N.E. from Darwar; lat. 15° 41′ N., lon. 75° 35′ E.

NEERMUL.—A town in the Beeder province, seventy-two miles E. by N. from Nandere; lat. 19° 19′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E. In 1815, 6,000 Pindaries crossed the river at this place.

NEGAPATAM.—A sea-port town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, twenty miles south from Tranquebar; lat. 10° 45′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E. This place was taken from the Portuguese by the Dutch in A.D.

1660, who strengthened its fortifications, and made it the capital of their possessions on the coast of Coromandel. They also established a mint here, which used to coin gold to the amount of four or five lacks of rupees annually. In 1820 two rows of old-fashioned Dutch houses, forming two sides of a square, having the ruins of a fort in the centre, with some straggling houses along the beach and river, were all that remained of this once flourishing settlement, and the obelisks and cupolas of an extensive burying-ground the chief subsisting indications of a former population. Many of the houses had been pulled down to procure the glass sash windows, which were sent to Madras and sold. Of the fort, which made a stout resistance in 1781, scarce a foot of masonry remains standing; and one solitary Dutchman, who resides mostly at Madras, the only genuine representative of its ancient garrison. At present the Indian descendants of its former colonists are the denizens of the European quarters.

The native portion of the town is more extensive, and appears to have been laid out originally with considerable regularity, but like the rest is now decayed and depopulated. A church of tolerable appearance has its place on the north side of the quadrangle, and the whole spot is luxuriant with avenues of trees. Negapatam is now a place of inconsiderable trade, but frequently touched by ships for refreshments, which are plentiful. There is a strange ruin here of very massive brick masonry, about eighty feet high, named by seamen the Chinese pagoda. It is conjectured to have been a Jain temple, but has much more the character of an old Dutch steeple, or huge unfinished minar, intended to rival its neighbour at Nagore. It must, however, be admitted that images either of Jain or Buddhist origin have been found in the adjacent territory.—(*Fullarton, Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

NEGOMBO (*Nagambhu, the land of serpents*).—A town and small fort on the west coast of Ceylon, twenty miles north from Columbo; lat. 7° 11′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E. The fort is an irregular pentagon, constructed mostly of sand and turf, and the town contains a considerable number of reduced Dutch families, attracted to Negombo by its cheapness and salubrity. Fish abound and are exported, and there is an inland navigation for twenty-four miles all the way to Columbo. Before the houses teak trees, which appear to thrive, are planted, and in this neighbourhood the cinnamon plantations commence, stretching to the southward. The population of Negombo is considerable, and the adjacent country fertile, yielding rich crops of rice; the areca-nut, betel-leaf, coffee, and the black pepper plants also flourish.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

NEGRAIS (*or Bassein*) DISTRICT.—A district in the Burmese dominions, situated at the south-western extremity of the ancient kingdom of Pegu, the area of which has been computed at 9,000 square miles. It is watered by the two great branches of the Irawady, the most westerly of which falls into the sea at Cape Negrais, and is known as the Bassein river. In the rains, ships of burthen may ascend fifty miles above the town, but during the dry season no water flows into it from the Irawady, the communication being stopped by sand-banks. At the height of the rains the country is almost completely submerged. The climate is mild and moist, the excessive heat being moderated by the sea breeze.

The face of the country is low, and except where cleared for culture, overrun with jungle and forest. Rice is the principal grain cultivated, but maize, yams, sweet potatoes, and farinaceous roots are also raised. Wood oil for lamps is procured from the seed and fruit of a tree named Tungopen, which grows wild in the jungles. Tobacco, sugar, indigo, and cotton, are but little cultivated. Palms are rare, and the areca-nut is imported from Bengal, and coco-nuts

from the Nicobars. Silk and cotton coarse goods are manufactured in the province, but the finer qualities are imported from Ava and Bengal. The internal trade consists of rice, salt, balachong, salted and dried fish sent inland from Bassein, for which the returns are silk goods, lacquered-ware, tobacco, onions, tamarinds, cotton, lac, lacquer, petroleum oil, dammer, iron, saltpetre, and sulphur. Boats of a large size were formerly sent to Chittagong, Dacca, and Calcutta.

The province of Bassein is said to have formerly contained thirty-two townships, but of these only eight now remain, with very scanty population. During the British sway in 1824 the three townships of Bassein, Pantano, and Kaybong, were found to contain about 50,000 persons, Burmese and Taliens, and 30,000 Carians and Kayns. The first inhabit the banks of the large rivers, the Carians those of the smaller nullahs, while the Kayns and Zabaings seek refuge in the forests that are too unhealthy for the other tribes. Their dialects differ essentially, but they render themselves intelligible to each other through a jargon of the Burmese, and a large proportion of the Taliens and Birmans can read and write. The taxes are numerous; in fact, everything that can be extorted from the labouring classes is extorted.

Large quantities of salt are manufactured on the sea-coast by an easy process, and exported. The teak forests within the limits of Bassein are not extensive, but good timber is procured from the district of Lamina. Of the hill and forest tribes the Carians are the best, being athletic and industrious, although they are said to have neither law nor religion, and seem much inclined to adopt those of the Burmese. The Kayns and Zabaings are also robust races. The Carians follow principally agriculture, the Kayns wood-cutting, and the Zabaings the rearing of silk-worms. They all eat animal food, and are not particular as to the quality, dogs and monkies being thought palatable, and when they can procure them, strong liquors are always acceptable.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

NEGRAIS.—A small island and excellent harbour in the Burmese dominions, situated at the mouth of the western branch of the Irawady, named the Bassein or Negrais branch; lat. 16° 2′ N., lon. 93° 19′ E. Cape Negrais, the most south-western extremity of India beyond the Ganges, is in lat. 16° N., lon. 93° 15′ E., and is, or rather was known by an Indian temple or pagoda which was erected on it. Negrais harbour is, without exception, the most secure in the bay of Bengal, as from hence a ship launches at once into the open sea, and may work to the southward without any other impediment than what the monsoon opposes.

The Madras government established a small settlement on this island, so early as A.D. 1687, but little benefit being derived from it, it was subsequently relinquished. In 1751 it was again occupied by the English, mismanaged, and abandoned. In 1757 Alompra, the founder of the present Birman dynasty, granted the English some valuable immunities, and ceded the island of Negrais in perpetuity, which was taken possession of with the usual ceremonies on the 22d of August of that year. In 1759 the Burmese murdered all the English settlers they could lay hold of (about nine-tenths), and compelled the remainder to evacuate. In May 1824, when this island was occupied by a detachment from Sir Archibald Campbell's army, it was found covered with jungle, intersected by salt-water inlets, and destitute of inhabitants except a few miserable fishermen. In 1824 the town of Bassein contained only 3,000 persons.—(*Symes, Dalrymple, &c.*)

NEHRWALLA.—See PUTTUNWAR.

NELLEMBOOR.—An inland town, or collection of agricultural dwellings not very close together, in the province of Malabar, thirty-three miles E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 17′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E.

NELLISERAM (*Neliswaram, an epithet of Siva*).—A town in the Malabar province, forty-six miles S.S.E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 16′ N. Besides large forts there were formerly between Mangalore and this place no less than eighteen small forts, intended to defend the numerous inlets and harbours, with which this coast abounds, capable of sheltering vessels that do not draw more than six or eight feet of water. Since the British ascendancy these have been mostly allowed to crumble to decay, for whatever importance we may attach to fortifications, one thing is certain, that the troops required to defend them are lost to general purposes, for no force ought to be stationary except under very peculiar circumstances, such as the protecting of arsenals, and the maintaining a line of communication. On this coast, whatever power has the harbour of Goa and a superior fleet may command the whole.—(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

NELLORE (*including Ongole*).—A district in the Carnatic province, situated principally between the fourteenth and sixteenth degrees of north latitude, which besides the tracts above-named, includes also some of the western pollams. To the north it is bounded by Guntoor; on the south by the northern division of Arcot; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the district of Cuddapah. The principal river is the Pennar, but the country is also traversed by many small streams that flow from the eastern ghauts into the bay of Bengal. The principal towns are Nellore, Ongole, and Serapilly.

In 1801 several copper mines were discovered in this district, portions of which were sent to England and assayed. A parcel of the ore, weighing twenty cwt., yielded nine cwt. and a quarter; but as no further exports of the article took place, it is probable they did not continue equally productive. The manufacture of salt is carried on to a greater extent on the sea-coast of Nellore and Ongole than in any other district under the Madras presidency. The quantity in 1808 amounted to 221,690 Bengal maunds, all on government account being a fiscal monopoly. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 6,88,528 rupees. The condition of the peasantry in the Nellore collectorate appears to be more comfortable than in many other parts of India; for with the exception of the single zemindary of Vencatigherry, the cultivator universally pays his rent to the revenue officers without the intervention of any intermediate proprietor. Much of the country, however, is still in an uncultivated state. In 1822 the total population, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras government, amounted to 439,467 persons.—(*Public MS. Documents, Fifth Report, Fullarton, &c.*)

NELLORE (*Nelaver*).—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the south side of the Pennar river, from which it is distant about 500 yards; lat. 12° 49′ N., lon. 80° 1′ E., 100 miles N.W. from Madras. In 1757, when besieged by Col. Forde, it extended about 1,200 yards from east to west, and 600 yards on the other sides. The walls were of mud, and only the gateway and a few of the towers of stone. The parapet was six feet high, with many loopholes for small arms, made of pipes of baked clay, laid in the moist mud while raising, and afterwards consolidated with the mass, which is the common mode of making these defences in India. On this occasion Col. Forde, although an officer of the first ability, was obliged to raise the siege. It was subsequently acquired by the nabobs of Arcot, and in 1801 ceded by treaty along with the district, and placed under the presidency of Madras. It is still (1820) a populous and busy town, about three quarters of a mile long, and full of shops, well stocked with commodities, but without a single public or private building of note. The suburbs without the walls are also considerable.

The civil station is situated on an elevated ridge south of the town, overlooking an extensive tank or lake, which approaches near it towards the west. There is a ferry here across the Pennar river, which streams over a bed of sand about three-fourths of a mile wide.

In A.D. 1787 a peasant near this town found his plough obstructed by some brick work, and having dug, discovered the remains of a small Hindoo temple, under which a little pot was found, containing Roman coins and medals of the second century. He sold some of them as old gold, and many were melted; but about thirty were recovered before they underwent the fusing operation. They were all of the purest gold, and many of them fresh and beautiful. Some, however, were much defaced and perforated, as if they had been worn as ornaments on the arm, or round the neck. They were mostly Trajans, Adrians, and Faustinas.—(*Fullarton, Davidson, Orme, &c.*)

NEMAUR.—An ancient division of the Candeish province, situated in that part of the valley of the Nerbudda that lies between Hindia to the east and Chiculdah to the west, and between the Vindhya chain to the north and the Satpoora hills to the south. In length it is 130, and its general breadth from thirty to forty miles; but in the middle it expands to a much greater width. North of the Nerbudda the boundary mountains seldom recede more than eighteen miles from its banks, and at the Herrin Pahl the two ranges are only separated by the river.

The larger portion of Nemaur is a fertile, undulating plain, once flourishing and highly cultivated, but of late years a mere wilderness, overgrown with brushwood and low jungle. The western tracts on both sides of the river, including Burwanee, Chiculdah, Durrumpoory, Sultanabad, and as far as Kurgoond, are generaly level and partially cultivated; but the eastern portion from the island of Mundatta to Kautkote is, on the north bank of the Nerbudda, a congeries of low hills, covered with jungle, and almost entirely desolate except on the immediate borders of the river. On the southern side, to the distance of three or four miles from the Nerbudda, the country greatly resembles the northern section, except that it is still more desolate.

The greater proportion of the lands north of the river belong to Holcar and the raja of Dhar, except Bancaneer, which belongs to Sindia, and some of the hilly parts possessed by Bheel and Rajpoot chiefs; of those to the south much the largest share has devolved to the British government, as representatives of the Peshwa. Mheyshwar is the principal, if not the only place of note in Nemaur. Excepting the subdivision of Burwanee, the greatest part of Southern Nemaur consists of the ancient Mogul circar of Bejaghur, the name of which is now only preserved by the ruins of the capital, situated within the limits of a large hill-fort in the Sâtpoora range. In recent times the whole district suffered greatly from the ravages of the Pindaries; but on the restoration of tranquillity, by the establishment of the British supremacy in 1818, every encouragement was given, by remission of arrears, reduction of rent, and advances of money, to induce the peasantry to repopulate their deserted villages, which in 1820 had already been partially done.

Nemaur, together with the contiguous territories generally within the valleys of the Nerbudda and Tuptee, is probably the least elevated portion of the inland regions of the Deccan. The climate is consequently, during a part of the year, intensely hot, the thermometer in March 1820, under the cover of Mr. Fullarton's tent, reaching to 108° Fahrenheit.—(*Malcolm, Fullarton, &c.*)

NEMAWUR.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, almost opposite to Hindia; lat. 22° 27′ N.

lon. 77° E. In 1820 it contained 300 houses, and was the head of a pergunnah belonging to Holcar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

NEPAUL.

(Nepala.)

A kingdom of Northern Hindostan, which although greatly curtailed of its modern usurpations to the east and west by the peace of 1815, still remains one of the largest and most compact independent sovereignties of India. To the north it is separated from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; on the south it is bounded by the British territories in the provinces of Delhi, Oude, Bahar, and Bengal, with the exception of about sixty miles, belonging to the nabob of Oude, which intervene. To the east the Nepaulese territories are separated from those of the British by the river Mitchee; from thence to the Himalaya mountains they are bounded by the principality of Sikkim, which stretches north to the Chinese frontier. To the west the limits are accurately defined by the course of the river Cali (the western branch of the Goggra), beyond which is the British district of Kumaon. The limits above assigned describe the kingdom in its greatest dimensions; but a very small portion (the valley) has any claim to the peculiar name of Nepaul, the rest being an aggregate of conquests obtained within the last seventy years from a great many petty hill states, and kept under by the predominant power of the Gorkhas. The whole are mostly situated between the twenty-seventh and thirty-first degrees of north latitude, and in extreme length may be estimated at 460 miles, by 115 the average breadth. The principal modern territorial subdivisions are the following, *viz.*

1. Nepaul Proper.
2. Country of the Twenty-four Rajas.
3. Country of the Twenty-two Rajas.
4. Muckwanpoor.
5. Kirauts.
6. Khatang.
7. Chayenpoor.
8. Saptai.
9. Morung.

Further local details will be found under the above heads respectively; the observations which immediately follow having reference to the Nepaul dominions generally, and as these in their utmost dimensions comprehend nearly two-thirds of Northern Hindostan, the geographical and physical details may be considered as applicable to the whole region. At present, in consequence of our possessing the mountainous tract west of the Cali, and the protection afforded to the Sikkim raja, the Gorkha dominions exhibit the form of a parallelogram, three sides of which are in immediate contact with the British territories, while the fourth is bounded by the Himalaya chain and empire of China.

The lowest belt of the Nepaulese dominions is part of the great plain of Hindostan. In a few spots the British districts reach to the base of the Himalaya mountains which bound the great plain to the north; but in most parts the Gorkha possessions stretch about twenty miles into the plains. Bounding this low country or terriani to the north is a region nearly of the same width, consisting of small hills that rise gradually towards the north, and watered by many streams springing from the southern faces of the first lofty mountains, to which these hills imperceptibly unite. The channels of these rivers or torrents, even where they have no connexion with the high mountains, are filled with fragments of granite and schistose mica; but the hills themselves are generally composed of clay, with various proportions of sand, mica, and gravel. The lower portion of these hills and some of the adjacent plains are the grand site of the saul forests, among which are many sissoo and toon trees. Higher up the hills are covered with a great variety, and on the hills of the north are many pines, and an abundance of the mimosa from which catechu is made. In these woods

there are also a great number of birds, such as parrots and parakeets, which are tamed by the natives on account of their singing or imitating the human voice. Petty dealers come from the low countries and disperse them throughout Bengal, to the infinite annoyance of its European conquerors.

In several places these low hills are separated from the high mountains by fine vallies of some length, but considerably elevated above Bengal and the Gangetic plains. In the country west from the Ganges these vallies are called by the generic name of doon, analogous to the Scottish word strath; but towards the east the term is unknown, although such vallies are of frequent occurrence. These doons or straths are tolerably well cultivated, but among the spurs and ridges of the hills there are many narrow valleys or glens, which as well as the adjacent hills possess a rich soil, yet are totally neglected. A few straggling villages, however, are scattered throughout the woods, especially in the higher parts, where the inhabitants cultivate cotton, rice, and other articles, with the hoe, after having cleared away part of the forest. The chief reason of this desertion seems to be the extreme unhealthiness of the tract, which in all probability is owing to the absence of cultivation; for Vijayapoor, Chattra, and some other places in the same division, having been well cleared, are reckoned healthy.

On arriving at what may be called the mountains, although they are not separated from the low hills by any distinct boundary, a very elevated region is reached, consisting of one mountain heaped on another, rising to a great height, so that when any snow happens in winter, their summits for a short time are covered with snow. The inhabited valleys within these are generally very narrow, and are of various degrees of elevation, probably from 3,000 to 6,000 feet of perpendicular height above the plains of Bengal. The temperature under these circumstances of course differs also; so that while some of them abounds with rattans and bamboos, both of enormous dimensions, others produce only oats and pines; some ripen the pine-apple and sugar-cane, others yield only barley, millet, and similar small grains. As the periodical rains extend to the Nepaul valley and tracts similarly situated, the country is not favourable for most kinds of fruit, the heats of spring not being sufficient to bring them to maturity before the rainy seson begins. Peaches grow wild by every rill, but one side of the fruit is rotted by the rain while the other is still green. There are also vines, but without shelter from the rains the fruit must always be bad. Two kinds of fruit, however, arrive here at the utmost perfection: the pine-apple in the warmer valleys is uncommonly fine; and the orange, as it ripens in winter, is no where better.

Owing to the abundance of rain in the warm season, the country, considering its inequality of surface, is very productive of grain. Wherever land can be levelled into terraces, however narrow, it is excellently suited for transplanted rice, which ripens after the rains have ceased, so that the harvest is never injured, and as most of the terraces can be supplied with water at pleasure from springs, the crops are almost certain. In some parts the same land gives a winter crop of wheat and barley, but in most parts this course of tillage is better avoided. Where the land is too steep for terraces, it is generally cultivated after fallows with the hoe, and produces rice sown broadcast, maize, cotton, three kinds of pulse, a kind of mustard, munjeet or Indian madder, wheat, barley, and sugar-cane. Besides these a most valuable article of cultivation in these mountainous parts is a large species of cardamom, and in the country between Nepaul Proper and the Cali, ginger is a valuable production; but transplanted rice may generally be considered in this quarter as one-half of the whole cultivation.

The mountain pasture, although not so harsh and watery as that of the low country, is by no means good; yet considerable flocks of sheep are fed, especially by the Gurung and Limboo tribes. In winter they retire to the lower mountains and vallies, but in summer they climb the alpine regions which bound their country to the north, and nourish their flocks on the herbage of some extensive tracts in the vicinity of the regions perpetually frozen, but which tracts in winter are covered several feet deep with snow. The sheep which these people possess, named Bharals, are of considerable size, with fine wool, but there is another species of sheep which is never sent to the alpine pastures. The cattle of the ox kind resemble those of the low countries, and are not numerous. Buffaloes are brought from the plains and fattened for slaughter, but are not bred; which is also the case with hogs and goats, although the country seems so admirably adapted for both. Horses are imported from Tibet, none being bred to the south of the Himalaya, which is also the case with the Chowry cattle, or bos grunniens, and the goat that supplies the shawl-wool. The frigid regions are the constant abode of two of the finest birds that are known, the marral (*meleagris satyra*), and the damphiya (*phasianus impeyanus*), and also the chakoor (*perdix rufa*), or fire-eater, thus named from its pecking at sparks of fire.

This mountainous region consists in many parts of granite, and contains much iron, lead and copper, with some zinc, and a little gold found in the channels of the rivers. The copper mines are quite superficial, the ore being dug from trenches entirely open above, so that the miners cannot work in the wet season. Each mine has certain families attached, who appear to have a property in it, but as the raja shares with them they are entirely at the discretion of his officers. The iron ore is also found near the surface, and the mines are subject to the same regulations as those of copper, except that the same persons dig and smelt, and are allowed one-third of the whole produce, while the raja and superintendent each receive as much. Mines of sulphur are reported to be numerous, but little is known respecting them. Corundum of the compact kind, such as is found in the western provinces under the Bengal presidency, is procured in great quantities among the hills of Ismah and Mussikot, but that which is most esteemed at Catmandoo is said to come from Tibet.

The valley of Nepaul Proper is the largest in the Gorkha dominions, yet in this elevated plain there is not naturally a single stone of any considerable size. The whole, so far as man has penetrated, consists of alluvial matter covered by soil. In some parts the alluvial matter consists of beds of fine gravel and sand, much of which is micaceous; but a large proportion of the alluvial matter consists of a blackish substance resembling clay, and probably of a vegetable origin, with which a kind of blue martial earth is found mixed. The greater part of the mountains that enclose the valley of Nepaul consist of grey granite, the surface of which is very much decayed wherever it has been exposed to the air. The stone usually employed for building in Nepaul is a rock containing much lime, but so impregnated with other matter, that although it effervesces strongly with acids, and falls to pieces in a sufficient quantity of these solvents, yet it cannot be reduced by calcination to quick-lime fit for use. The latter is consequently so scarce that clay is the only mortar used by the natives. The surface of these mountainous regions is copiously watered by springs, and the vegetable productions are remarkable for stateliness, beauty, and variety. Except near the very summits, the trees are uncommonly large, and every where and at all seasons the earth abounds with the most beautiful flowers, partly resembling those of India, but still more those of Europe. The timber-trees consist of various oaks, pines,

walnut, horn-beam, Weymouth pine, and common spruce fir; but the greater part are of little value, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country.

With respect to the breadth of this mountainous belt, there is reason to believe from the observations of Col. Crawfurd, that immediately north and east of Catmandoo, the horizontal direct extent across may be from thirty to forty miles from north to south, but further west the breadth is probably greater. The alpine region belonging to the Gorkhas, which bounds the mountainous district on the north, is probably of nearly equal extent, that is to say, over a space of thirty or forty miles from north to south, imminent peaks are scattered, covered with perpetual snow, before the passes are reached where the Tibet boundaries commence, and where the whole country is subject to everlasting winter. Between these scattered peaks are narrow vallies, some of which admit of cultivation; and being of the same elevation from the plains with the higher parts of the third region, last alluded to, are capable of yielding similar productions. By far the greatest portion of this fourth and alpine region consists of immense rocks, rising with sharp peaks and tremendous precipices, covered with perpetual snow, and almost constantly involved in clouds. Dhayabung, one of these peaks, but not the highest, was computed by Col. Crawfurd to be 19,960 feet above the level of the Nepaul valley. The country on the north side of these lofty peaks is said to be high and bare, but not mountainous.

The ridge of the snowy alps, although it appears to wind considerably, has few interruptions, and in most places is said to be altogether insuperable. Several rivers that rise in Tibet pass through among its peaks, but amidst such enormous precipices, and through such narrow chasms, that these openings are in general quite impracticable. By far the widest break gives passage to the Arun, the chief branch of the Cosi, where Maingmo on the west, and Mergu on the east, leave a very wide opening, occupied by mountains of a moderate height, which admit of cultivation. The most northern, or Cailas ridge, approaches Hindostan only at the Lake Manasarovara, where the remarkable peak named Cailas may be considered as the centre.

The numerous vallies among the prodigious mountains of which Nepaul in its extended sense consists, are inhabited by various tribes, that differ very much in language, and considerably in customs. All that have any pretensions to be considered aboriginal, like their neighbours of Bootan on the east, are by their features clearly marked as belonging to the Chinese or Tartar race of men, having no sort of resemblance whatever to the Hindoos. The time when this latter people penetrated into these regions is very uncertain. Bheem Sen, one of five Pandoos, is said to have entered them, and was probably the first who introduced any kind of improvement. He still continues a favourite object of veneration with the rude tribes, both on the mountains and their vicinity. Probably at no great distance from the time of that warrior, and about the commencement of the Christian era, Sakya, the last great teacher of the Buddhists, passed through the country and settled at Lassa, where he is supposed still to animate the mortal elements of the grand Lama. His followers seem to have acquired a great ascendancy over the tribes of Northern Hindostan, as well as in Tibet and Bootan, which they retained until a subsequent tribe of Hindoos, settled in the first-mentioned country, introduced the Brahmins, who had considerable success in destroying the heretical doctrines, although these have still many sectaries.

According to the traditions most relied on in Nepaul, the Hindoos of the mountains (or Parbutties) left their own country on its being invaded by the Mahomedan sovereign

of Delhi, who wished to marry a daughter of the Chitore raja, celebrated for her beauty. A refusal brought destruction on her father and his capital, and to avoid a hated yoke many of the people fled to the hills, about the fourteenth century. Several chiefs, especially those of Palpa, Tannabung, and Muckwanpoor, claim descent from the Chitore princess, but on very doubtful premises. It would appear, that when the highland chieftains were persuaded to adopt the Brahminical doctrines, many of their subjects or clans were induced to follow the example, and in this manner originated the tribes called Thappas, Ghartis, Majhis, Beshtakos, Ranas, and Kharkas, all of whom are called Khasiyas, or natives of Khas, but they wear the string, and live like pure Khetries, and are in fact included among the fencibles or military strength of the country. Some of these, such as Ammer Singh and Bheem Sen, attained the highest honours of the state.

The Rajpoots that pretend to be descended from the Chitore colony are very few in number; but the families of the mountain chiefs, who have adopted the Brahminical rules of purity, and even some who have neglected to do so, are now universally admitted to be Rajpoots. On the other hand, the Chitore families have so often intermarried with the aboriginal that several members have acquired the Tartar countenance; while some of the mountaineers, by intermarriages with genuine but indigent Rajpoots, have acquired oval faces and aquiline noses. Not only the colony therefore (real or pretended) from Chitore, but all the descendants of the hill chiefs, are now called Rajpoots; and until the absorption of all power by the reigning Gorkha family, held the principal offices, civil and military, of the petty states into which the country was subdivided. Even at present the nominal Rajpoots have not adopted the rules of purity; for while some branches are strict observers, others reject the admonitions of the sacred order, and eat and drink whatever they find palatable. In the eastern parts of the Nepaulese dominions the mountain Hindoos are far from having extirpated the aboriginal tribes, most of which, until the predominance of the Gorkhas, enjoyed their religion and customs unmolested; but west of the Cali the case is very different, almost all these pretending to be descended of colonies from the south. The various classes of inhabitants that have taken the Brahmins for their guides have not for any long period composed the bulk of the population, or entered the country as residents; but at present they or their converts form a large proportion of the inhabitants of Northern Hindostan.

The aboriginal mountain tribes have Chinese or Tartar faces, and before the arrival of the Hindoos from the south appear to have had no idea of caste. The tribes that occupied the country east of the Cali (for those to the west appear to have been early converted or extirpated) were chiefly Magars, Gurungs, Jariyas, Newars, Murmis, Kirauts, Limboos, Lapchas, and Bhooteas. The Magars occupied a large portion of the lower hills in the western quarter, were soon converted so far as to abstain from beef, and at present compose a great majority of the regular troops maintained by the Gorkha dynasty, which although claiming descent from Chitore, is strongly suspected to be of Magar extraction. The Gurungs were a pastoral tribe, who frequented the alpine regions in summer and returned to the vallies in winter; a great proportion of these still adhere to the Lama priesthood and Buddhist religion. They live much intermixed with the Bhooteas, cultivate with the hoe, are diligent miners and traders, conveying their goods on the numerous flocks of sheep they possess. The Jariyas formed a numerous tribe, and occupied much of the lower hilly region between the Cali and the Nepaul valley; but they are now nearly all converted to the Brahminical doctrines.

The more fertile part of what is called Nepaul Proper was chiefly occupied by Newars, a race addicted to agriculture and commerce, and far more advanced in the arts than any other mountain tribe. Their style of building and most of their arts appear to have been introduced from Tibet, and the greater number still adhere to the Buddhist tenets; but, on the other hand, they have adopted the distinction of caste, have rejected the *Lamas*, and have a priesthood of their own, named Bangras. Their own chiefs, called by the title of Mull (Mal) at the time when conquered by the Gorkha raja, had separated into three branches, governing Catmandoo, Lalita Patan, and Bhatgong. In point of religion a few have forsaken the precepts of Buddha, while by far the most numerous class still adhere to the doctrines inculcated by his minister, Sakya Singh. It may be observed, that the distinctions of caste and the nature of the priesthood are essential differences between the religion of the Burmese of Ava and that professed by the Buddhists of Nepaul; but both are held in impartial abhorrence by the Brahmins of Bengal. All the Newars burn their dead; all eat buffaloes, sheep, goats, fowls, and ducks; and all drink spirituous liquors, to the use of which they are excessively addicted. They all live in towns or villages, in houses built of brick, cemented with clay and covered with tiles, their bricks being good and their workmen expert. Their dwellings are three stories high; but the rooms are low in the roof, mean and dirty in appearance, and swarming with vermin, which in addition to the filth, including the offals of the shambles, and the blood of sacrifices collected in the street, render their towns sufficiently disgusting. The Newar females are never confined to the house. At eight years of age they are carried to a temple and married, with the ceremonies usual among Hindoos, to a fruit called bel, the aegle marmelos of Roxburgh. When she arrives at the age of puberty, her parents betroth her to some man of the same caste, and give her a dower, which becomes the property of her husband, or rather of her paramour, for the manners of the Newars are extremely licentious.

In the more rude and mountainous parts of Nepaul Proper the chief population consist of the Murmi, who are considered a branch of the Bhooteas, or of the Tibetians, but although similar in religion there is a marked difference in their languages. Their practices also are so obnoxious to the Gorkhas, that under pretence of their being thieves, no Murmi is allowed to enter the valley of Catmandoo. The Gorkhas likewise, by way of ridicule, call them Siyena Bhooteas, or carrion-eating Bhooteas, for such is their craving for beef that they cannot abstain from oxen that have died a natural death, and they are not now permitted to murder the sacred animal. They have in consequence, since the conquest of Nepaul by the Gorkhas, retired to places of difficult access, and before the subjugation of Sikkim many found an asylum in that country. The enmity of the Gorkhas, however, pursued them into their retirement and compelled them to disperse, as they were supposed too much to favour the cow-destroying chief of Sikkim. It does not appear that the Murmis ever had any share in the government or were addicted to arms, having always preferred agricultural pursuits, or been carriers of burthens, for which they are well calculated by the robustness of their frames. Their buildings are thatched huts, often supported on posts, like those of India east of the Ganges. Three of the most considerable of the other aboriginal tribes, the Kirauts, the Lapchas, and the Bhooteas, still remain, and will be found described under their respective heads. The Mahomedans have latterly become numerous in the Nepaul dominions, and are increasing, as they are zealous in purchasing girls and in propagating their sect. In 1803 the Christian church at Catmandoo was

reduced to an Italian padre and a native Portuguese.

Although the aboriginal mountain tribes had Tartar or Chinese faces, each had a peculiar dialect. Some used a written character altered from the Nagari, so as to enable it to express their utterance; others had not the use of letters. Before the arrival of the Hindoo colonies they had no idea of caste, but some of the races confined their marriages to their own nation, while others permitted intermarriages with strangers. Among all these hill tribes the females were weavers, and seem to have enjoyed great privileges; but the polyandria system of marriage, except in a very few parts, had not been introduced with the religion of Tibet. Until the arrival of the Rajpoots they appear to have eaten every kind of animal food, and still do so, as well as drink ardent spirits, when they are at liberty to indulge their inclinations. Each tribe seems originally to have had a priesthood, and duties peculiar to itself, although the worship of Bheem the son of Pandoo appears to have been very general, and to have preceded the doctrines of the Buddhists; but first the Lamas, or perhaps the Jogies, and then the Brahmins made encroachments, and at the same time introduced new customs.

The mountain Hindoos of pure birth are not numerous, but there are a great many of a spurious race, from intermixture with the aboriginal tribes. These mountain Hindoos are described as a treacherous and cruel people, at once arrogant and abject. Their men of rank, even of the second grade, are very debauched, passing their nights in the company of male and female dancers, and by excessive indulgence bringing on premature debility. Except a few of the Brahmins they are in general drunkards, which joined to a temper uncommonly suspicious, renders them frequently so frantic with jealousy, that assassinations are perpetrated in the fury of the moment. For this they are always prepared by wearing a large knife in their girdle, and the point of honour requires that they never rest until they have spilled the blood of the man who has been suspected of a criminal intercourse with their wives. The frequently imaginary cuckold watches his opportunity for months and years, until he finds his adversary off his guard, when having at length found a favourable moment, he plunges his knife into his body and satisfies his revenge. This procedure is considered so commendable, that at Catmandoo the police, which in other respects is very strict, does not at all interfere in such matters, although the assassin is frequently actuated by mere suspicion. The highest ranks, when not compelled by the most urgent necessity, conceal their women, and their widows ought to burn themselves with their husband's corpse; the custom being more prevalent than in most parts of India, the vicinity of Calcutta and the Concan excepted. The Brahmins are of the Kanoje nation, and Sacti sect, following chiefly the tenets promulgated in the books named Tantras.

Prior to the Gorkha conquest the management of affairs in all the petty states was in many respects the same, differing chiefly in the names applied to similar officers, and the nature of the military establishment in the two regions lying east and west of the Cali, the Hindoo rules of purity having been established with much less rigour in the first than in the last. The five severe punishments were confiscation of the whole estate; banishment of the whole family; degradation of the whole family by delivering all the individuals composing it to the lowest tribes; maiming the limbs, and death by cutting the throat. In addition to these the Gorkhas introduced some new and horrible tortures. Women, as in all Hindoo governments, are never put to death, but the torments inflicted on them are dreadfully severe, some of them such as do not admit of description.

Since the predominance of the

Gorkhas, a soubah has usually been established in the place of the conquered raja, but they are not permitted to inflict any of the severe punishments without special instructions from Catmandoo, to which the case must be referred. The soubah is an officer of justice, revenue and police, and in fact farms the whole revenue of the district, sometimes collecting it wholly on his own account, at others farming particular branches to individuals. Besides annual presents paid by the soubahs, and exclusive of the presents with which every one must approach the court, a rajanka, or kind of arbitrary income-tax, is frequently levied, extending to all degrees, and even to such of the sacred order as possess rent-free lands. When General Kirkpatrick visited Nepaul in 1792, he learned, on what he considered good authority, that the revenue which actually reached Catmandoo never exceeded thirty lacks of rupees, and fluctuated between that and twenty-five lacks. The subsequent addition of territory, although it increased the means of supporting a large army, probably sent little money to the capital, and the Gorkha territories having been again reduced under the status quo of that period, the revenue has of course sustained a corresponding diminution.

The barradar, or grand council of state, consists of twelve principal officers, who usually attend the raja, but frequently act without him. On great emergencies a kind of assembly of notables is held, in which men who have neither office nor any considerable influence in the state are allowed to speak, but very little importance is attached to what they say. Before the Gorkha predominance the military force among the petty chiefs was always large in proportion to their means, but consisted of an undisciplined rabble, although of good bodily endowments. Since then much improvement in the art of war has been introduced by the Gorkhas; their soldiers, however, are still far behind the regular corps of British sepoys. They have all firelocks of an inferior description, but do not load with cartridges. Neither do they use the bayonet, being provided with swords, which are perhaps better suited for such a mountainous country, when backed by a large knife or dagger used for a variety of purposes. The jung neshaun, or war standard, is on a yellow ground, and exhibits a portrait of Hunimaun, a gigantic monkey and Hindoo demigod. The expenses of the military establishments are for the most part discharged by assignments of land, though in some instances the soldier receives his pay direct from the treasury.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Nepaul Proper.—The most select portion of the Gorkha territory consists of two delightful valleys, separated by the mountain Chandragiri; but these valleys, called great and little Nepaul, do not include the whole of Nepala Dess, which is one of the fifty-six regions of Hindoo geography. It extends a considerable way over the countries watered by streams flowing from the outside of the mountains that surround the valley, and which fall into the Gunduck on the west, and the Causiki on the east. The real boundaries are four celebrated places of pilgrimage; Nilkantha, eight days' journey north from Catmandoo; Nateswara, three days' journey south; Kaleswara, two days' journey west; and Bheemeswara, four days' journey east. The territory included within these places is holy ground, and is called Dhama; but the whole was not subject to the Newar chiefs who formerly governed Nepaul; and a large portion, especially in the vicinity of Nilkantha, until the ascendant of the house of Gorkha was subject to Tibet.

The large valley of Nepaul is somewhat of a circular form, and is watered by numerous streams contributaries to the Bagmutty, which flow from the surrounding hills towards the centre, and unite a little way south of the capital. From the spot of junction the Bagmutty runs south,

and enters the terriani or low country, after having forced a passage through the mountains. Taken in the largest sense, therefore, the valley of Nepaul comprehends all the ground watered by the sources of the Bogmutty, and according to this definition is twenty-two miles from east to west, and twenty from north to south. This extent is every where bounded by a chain of hills, all of which are steep, and some rise to high mountains. Of these the most remarkable are Sivapuri, on the north; Nagarjun, on the west; Chandragiri, on the south-west; Puliher, on the south-east; and Devicot, on the east. From these hills various spurs reach a considerable way into the plain, and separate from it small vallies, most of which are considerably elevated above the general level, and from these minute vallies issue the numerous streams that irrigate the country. The larger valley, reduced by these branches, may be about fourteen miles each way. Viewed from the centre, the whole appears on a level; but by exploring deep hollows are discovered, excavated by different currents of the river, which flow with a gentle stream over large sandy beds. Except after heavy rains, these are always fordable, and are commonly sunk fifty or sixty feet perpendicular below the general level of the plain.

Dr. Francis Buchanan agrees with General Kirkpatrick in supposing that this valley was formerly a lake, which has gradually deposited all the alluvial matter that composes the different sub-strata of the plain. The extent of the lake may in all places be traced by that of the alluvial substances, above the edges of which generally appear large irregularly shaped stones, which having rolled down from the mountains, stopped at the water's margin, as is usual in the lakes of hilly countries. The existence of the lake is still preserved in the mythological fables of the natives, where the name of the deity (Menjoo Deva), who cleft the mountain with his scymitar, is recorded, together with numerous particulars equally authentic connected with that exploit. While the lake existed there must have appeared in it two islands, which now form hills; the one named Sambhunath is a beautiful hill, much venerated by the Buddhists; the other is large, but not so high, and is greatly reverenced by the Brahminical followers of the Vedas, as having been the residence of Siva and his wife, to each of whom a temple is still dedicated. These sanctuaries are frequented by great numbers of pilgrims, who by visiting all the faces, hope to escape degradation below the scale of man in any future metempsychosis. The hill in a large proportion of its circumference is washed by the Bogmutty, which is here so holy a river, that all Hindoos of Nepaul wish to expire with their feet immersed in its stream, and after death to be burned on its banks.

The northernmost boundary of the Nepaul valley scarcely lies in a higher parallel than lat. 27° 50′ N., yet it enjoys in some respects the climate of the south of Europe. Catmandoo, according to barometrical observations, stands 4,784 feet above the plains of Bengal, and to this great elevation must be attributed the degree of cold experienced in so low a latitude. A tolerably accurate estimate of the average heat of the valley may be obtained from that of its springs, one of which on a level with Catmandoo, was found to be sixty-four degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. In a few hours the inhabitants, by ascending or descending the mountains, can pass to a variety of temperatures; and in three or four days' journey, by moving from Noakote to Kheroo or Ramica, may exchange the heat of Bengal for the cold of Russia. The periodical rains extend to this spot, and are nearly of the same length and duration as those of Bahar, or perhaps a little earlier; but as they occupy the greater part of the summer, the country is not favourable for many sorts of fruit, the heat of the spring not being sufficient to ripen them before

the rainy season commences, as is the case in Bengal.

The whole lands of Nepaul Proper have been long partitioned into fields, each of which in ordinary seasons is estimated to produce 234 bushels of rice in the husk. Pastures and forests are mostly common, but few cattle being bred in the country. Buffaloes and horses are imported from the plains; and horses, chowry cattle, shawl goats, common goats and sheep, from Bhote and Tibet. The arable lands are partly retained as the immediate property of the crown for defraying the household expenses of the raja, and most great proprietors employ stewards with their servants and slaves to cultivate some land for supplying their families. The great here seldom go to market, which among a lawless people is no small advantage to the lower classes, although, as occasioning a want of regular markets, of equal inconvenience to travellers. The hoe is the grand agricultural instrument of cultivation, yet it is of so awkward a shape, that the labourer must either stoop exceedingly while at work, or sit on his heels, a posture he usually prefers. They have, however, made one step in advance on Southern Hindostan, as they have numerous water-mills for grinding corn, although in Nepaul rice is the grand crop. Many other sorts of pulse and roots are cultivated, and sugar-cane is planted in considerable quantities, but more is rarely raised than is required for the consumption of the principal landlords. The Newar cultivators make a little extract, soft sugar and sugar-candy, but a large proportion of the cane is chewed without any preparation. Among the spontaneous productions of Nepaul are the raspberry, walnut, and mulberry; but none of the fruits are good except the pine-apple and orange.

As a general summary Nepaul may be said to export to British India elephants, elephants' teeth, rice, timber, hides, ginger, terra japonica, turmeric, wax, honey, pure resin of the pine, walnuts, oranges, long pepper, ghee, bark of the root of bastard cinnamon, dried leaves of the same, large cardamoms, dammer, lamp oil, and cotton of the simul tree; and that the following articles are exported from the British dominions to Nepaul, either for the consumption of the country or for the Tibet market, *viz.* Bengal cloths, muslins, and silks of various sorts, raw silk, gold and silver laces, carpets, English cutlery, saffron, spices, sandal-wood, quicksilver, cotton, tin, zinc, lead, soap, camphor, chillies, tobacco, and coral; but the total amount is quite insignificant. A considerable trade subsists between the Nepaul territories, and the district of Purneah in Bengal, which, as it consists mostly in the exchange of articles in a rude state, and for which there is a mutual necessity, might, if liberally conducted, prove of great utility to both countries. The chief import by this route from Nepaul is grain, and the principal export salt. In 1808 the whole exports to Nepaul from Purneah were estimated at only 71,000 rupees, while the imports into the latter amounted to 3,64,000 rupees, the difference being paid to the Nepaulese in silver. Of the first, however, as containing a great value in small bulk, it is probable much was concealed. By this route some gold-dust, originally from Tibet, was received, but no computation of the amount can be made, all transactions in the precious metals being carefully concealed, no subject of Nepaul wishing to be known as dealing in so very tangible a commodity.

The great mass of the inhabitants of Nepaul dwell in the valleys; the hills and the terriani or low country being but thinly populated. In Nepaul Proper the Parbutties or mountaineers are not near so numerous as the Newars, who are described among the aboriginal tribes in the preceding article. The valley of Nepaul is certainly populous, but the number of inhabitants is much exaggerated by the natives, who assign 18,000 houses to Catmandoo, 24,000 to Lalita Patan, and 12,000 to Bhatgong, which num-

bers are probably equal to the aggregate persons of all ages and sexes in each town respectively, allowing a few additional to Catmandoo the capital. There are besides within the valley several other considerable towns, such as Timi, Kirthipoor, Dewapatan, Sanghee, and Thankote. The highlanders do not, like the Newars, delight in towns, or even villages, and except the followers of the court few reside at Catmandoo, or other cities of Nepaul; neither are they so much addicted to large brick buildings. The princes of the Gorkha dynasty, notwithstanding they have united very extensive dominions under their authority, have been contented with the original palace of the petty chief of Catmandoo before his subjugation, which, although of magnitude (considering the small chief for whose accommodation it was erected), possesses no architectural magnificence, and is, in fact, inferior to the palaces of Lalita Patan and Bhatgong.

A large proportion of the mountaineers retain their old manners, each man living on his own farm. The language universally spoken by them in the vicinity of Catmandoo is called the Parbatiya Bhasha, or mountain dialect; but west from the capital it is more commonly known by the name of Khas Bhasha, or dialect of the Khas country. The character in which it is written is derived from the Nagari, and the language itself appears to be a close dialect of the Hindui, which is making rapid progress in extinguishing the aboriginal languages of the mountains, glossaries should therefore be collected in time. General Kirkpatrick was of opinion that, were a search made after ancient Sanscrit manuscripts in the Nepaul valley, much valuable information might be gained, as there was reason to suppose the religion of Brahma had been established there without interruption from the remotest antiquity. The process of time and events, however, has proved that both the conjectures of that able officer were erroneous, scarcely any manuscripts having been discovered among these rude tribes, whose Brahmins are more than usually illiterate, and whose doctrines are ascertained to have been comparatively a recent innovation, imported from the south, and still progressive in the work of conversion.

Throughout Nepaul Proper cultivation is nearly confined to the Newar tribes, who also exercise the useful arts; but they enjoy little security or happiness under their present rulers. They probably never were of a martial disposition, and are held in great contempt by the mountaineers. They are of a middle size, broad shoulders and chest, stout limbs, round, and rather flat faces, small eyes, low and somewhat spreading noses, with a complexion between a sallow and a copper colour. Rice is the grand basis of subsistence in Nepaul, where along with it the poorer classes eat raw garlick and radishes. They also fry radishes, fenugreek, and lentils in water, mixed with salt, pepper, and turmeric, and to these people in more easy circumstances add oil or ghee, and the rich a great deal of animal food. Even the poorest are occasionally able to sacrifice a pigeon, fowl, or duck, and of course to eat all these birds. No Hindoo eats any meat but the flesh of sacrifices, for he considers it a sin to kill any animal merely for the purpose of indulging his appetite; but when a sacrifice has been made, the votary thinks he may with safety eat what the god does not use. The Rajpoots of Nepaul are in fact so fond of animal food that, to the astonishment of the Bengalese, they drink the blood of a sacrifice as it flows from the victim.

In Nepaul most of the domestic servants are slaves; and there are some Brahmins who are slaves to Rajpoots, and in high families are employed as cooks (an office of great dignity), or in the service of public chapels. All other ranks are sold for common slaves, and persons of the best family have been degraded by the raja and given to damais, or tailors, by which they not only lose

their liberty but also their caste, which to a Hindoo is of much more importance, as in general among the higher classes the caste of a slave is respected. It is reckoned very disgraceful to sell their children to any person of impure birth or to an infidel: yet in cases of exigence it is frequently done, and the parents do not lose caste, which, however, they inevitably would, if they afterwards admitted their child into their family, even were he liberated by his master. All the female slaves or katies, not excepting those belonging to the queen, are prostitutes, although the latter are allowed some privileges, and have considerable influence at court. In the day-time they attend the maha ranny, or queen, and when she goes out some of them, armed with swords, follow her on horseback, and form her body-guard, on which occasion they are dressed and ride like men.

The Nepaulese constitution is essentially despotic, modified by certain observances enjoined by immemorial custom, the Dharma Shastra forming the basis of their jurisprudence in civil and criminal cases. Nepaul Proper is under the barradar, or great officers of the court, for the support of which Catmandoo pays 18,000 rupees; Lalita Patan, 18,000; Bhatgong, 14,000; and Kirthipoor, 7,000 rupees. About 1806 a kind of perpetual settlement was made of the crown lands, when each farm was assessed at a certain quantity of grain, which the farmer might either pay in kind, or in money at the market price. A very large proportion of the valley has been alienated, either in fee, or as charity land. A fine town named Sanghoo, worth annually 4,000 rupees, is the jaghire or jointure of the queen regent; and Dewapatan, a still larger place, belongs entirely to certain temples, which in the valley are redundantly numerous, there not being a fountain, river, or hill within its limits that is not consecrated to some deity of the Hindoo pantheon.

The ancient history of Nepaul is much clouded with mythological confusion. The inhabitants have a list of princes for many ages back, of whom Ny Muni, who communicated his name to the valley, was the first. Like other Eastern states it often changed masters; but the revolutions appear either to have originated internally, or to have been connected with their immediate neighbours, as we never find them subjected either to the Delhi emperors or to any other great Asiatic power. About A.D. 1323 Nur Singh Deo, raja of Semroughur (then a potent state), and of the posterity of Bamdeb, of the Surya Bansi princes of Oude, entered Nepaul, and is said to have completely subdued it; but from that period scarcely any authentic information has been obtained, either of the dynasties that ruled during the interval, or of the race of princes who governed Nepaul at the time of the Gorkha conquest. For some time prior to that event the Newars, who are the aboriginal inhabitants of the valley, appear to have been subject to a family of their own nation, all the members of which had assumed the name of Mull, and had separated into three lordships, Catmandoo, Lalita Patan, and Bhatgong, which circumstance greatly facilitated the enterprize of the Gorkha invader.

Runjeet Mull of Bhatgong was the last prince of the Surya Bansi (offspring of the sun) race that reigned over Nepaul. He formed an alliance with Prithi Narrain, the raja of Gorkha, with the view of strengthening himself against the prince of Catmandoo; but this connexion ended in the total subjugation of Nepaul by his ally in the Newar year 888, corresponding with A.D. 1768. Prithi Narrain was a chief of sound judgment, great courage, and insatiable ambition. Kind and liberal, especially of promises, to his friends and dependents, he was regardless of faith with strangers, or of humanity to his opponents. Besides his personal endowments he was much indebted for success to the introduction of firelocks, which, until his time, were

totally unknown among the hills; and so far as he was able he introduced European discipline, the value of which he fully appreciated. The Gorkha dynasty first came into collision with the British in 1769, when a force was detached by the Bengal government under Captain Kinloch, who penetrated as far as Sedowly, an important post at the foot of the Nepaul hills; but not being able to proceed further, and the troops becoming sickly, the enterprize was abandoned.

After a life of incessant activity and monstrous cruelty, Prithi Narrain died in 1771, leaving two legitimate sons, Singh Pertaup, who succeeded his father, and Bahadur Sah, who after his brother's death was regent of the kingdom during his nephew's minority. Singh Pertaup's attention was principally directed to secure the eastern conquests; but dying in 1775, the kingdom devolved to his infant son, Run Bahadur, under the charge of his uncle, Bahadur Sah, an active and energetic chief, and his mother, Rajindra Lakshmi, a princess of similar talents. Under these guardians the conquests were prosecuted; Palpa and many other petty states to the west, Bhote to the north, and Sikkim to the east, were compelled to acknowledge the Gorkha predominance. Towards the end of Mr. Hastings' government, the Teshoo Lama of Tibet proceeded to Pekin, and dying soon after his arrival there, Sumhur Lama, his brother, fled from Lassa to Nepaul, taking with him a considerable quantity of the treasure hoarded at Lassa for so many ages. By the tenour of his communications he excited the avarice of the Nepaul government, which marched a body of troops towards Lassa, whose troops being beaten, the Lama's priesthood agreed to pay a tribute of three lacks of rupees. In 1790 the Nepaulese, influenced with a rage for plunder, detached a second army against Teshoo Loomboo, the residence of another sacred Lama, which pillaged the place and all its temples, and succeeded in carrying off a large booty, although closely pursued by the Chinese army. During their retreat they lost 2,000 men by the severity of the weather, great numbers of whom appear to have been frozen to death.

In 1792 the emperor of China, as the earthly superior of the Lamas, whom he at once protects and worships, despatched an army of 70,000 men against the Nepaul raja, which beat the Gorkha troops repeatedly, and advanced to Noakote, within twenty-six miles of Catmandoo and sixty of the British territories in the province of Bengal. The Nepaulese were in consequence obliged at last to make peace on ignominious terms, consenting to become tributaries to the emperor of China, and restore all the plunder they had acquired from the Tibet Lamas. The submission, however, was merely temporary, nor does it appear that restitution was ever made, or the tribute ever exacted. A treaty of commerce was about the same time attempted by Lord Cornwallis, and Captain, afterwards General Kirkpatrick, sent to Catmandoo; but the extreme jealousy of the Nepaulese frustrated all his endeavours. The above event, on the whole, proved beneficial to the Gorkhas, as it gave them a pretext for appealing for protection to the Chinese, with whose influence over the British nations, through the medium of the tea-plant, they are much better acquainted than is generally supposed.

In 1795 Run Bahadur, the young raja, suddenly assumed the government, threw his uncle into chains, starved him to death, and beheld daily tortures and mutilations with the most savage joy, subjecting females of all castes, even the sacerdotal, to the abuses of the basest wretches. He had a son by a Brahmin widow, in 1797, in whose favour, from superstitious motives, he made a nominal abdication, to save the mother's life, who nevertheless died. On this event his conduct became that of a madman, and he perpetrated atrocities in the paroxysms of his

rage at which the Nepaulese still shudder. When endurance was exhausted the chiefs confederated against him, and the tyrant being abandoned by the military, absconded during the night and fled to Benares, which he reached in the month of May 1800. In 1802 Capt. Knox was despatched to Catmandoo to attempt another commercial treaty, and a sort of treaty of alliance was concluded with the existing members of the Nepaulese administration under the infant raja; but although many advantages were apparently obtained, the whole were rendered nugatory by the jealous opposition of the subordinate Nepaulese officers, probably privately instigated by their superiors. Run Bahadur, the expelled raja, resumed his throne in 1804; but continuing to rule with his former barbarity, was assassinated in 1805 in his own durbar. A conflict then ensued between the rival factions, which did not terminate until nearly all the chief men at Catmandoo were slaughtered.

From the above date, although agitated by intestine feuds, the Nepaulese, under the minor raja, and the thappas, his ministers, continued to extend their conquests in all directions. The hill chiefs towards the Jumna and Sutuleje, being accustomed to encroach on each other's possessions, viewed all their neighbour's movements with the utmost jealousy, and had no common principle of mutual defence. The consequence was that each fell singly before the Gorkhas, and offered but little resistance to a body of half-disciplined barbarians, who imposed on them by a wretched imitation of the dress, constitution, and accoutrements of a British sepoy. That they might have successfully defended such a country scarcely admits of a doubt, yet the invaders were suffered to capture, without the aid of artillery, every hill-fort from the Ganges to the Sutuleje. When Ammer Singh Thappa first attracted notice, he was employed in subduing the intervening states and as he advanced west he erected forts and stockades at convenient distances, especially at Almora, Serinagur, and Malown, and on the Seik frontier he established a strong line of fortifications. A series of encroachments also began on the British possessions along the whole northern frontier, more especially in the districts of Goruckpoor and Sarun, where at length in 1814 two thannas or police stations was attacked by a large body of Gorkhas,and nearly all the garrisons exterminated.

The sword was now drawn, but the war lingered, and several bloody checks, such as the British troops had not been lately accustomed to, were experienced, until 1815, when Sir David Ochterlony having assumed the chief command, penetrated the hills, and by a series of skilful operations dislodged the Gorkhas from the fortified heights of Malown, and ultimately so baffled and pent up their renowned commander Ammer Singh, that he was glad to capitulate, and abandon the whole territory west of the Cali. A treaty of peace was subsequently concluded on the 28th November 1815, but owing to intrigues in his cabinet, the raja's ratification having been withheld, it was determined to strike a blow at Catmandoo his capital, with an army of 46,629 regulars and irregulars, directed in various quarters against the Nepaulese dominions, complete in every respect. On the 3d February 1816 it crossed the frontier of the British district, advancing north towards Catmandoo, and after several desperate actions, on the 1st March had approached so near that three days more would have decided the fate of that capital. This circumstrance had so sedative an influence on the Nepaulese councils that an ambassador reached the general's camp on the 4th, entreating him to accept the unratified treaty of 1815; and in this manner, by the decisive activity of Sir David Ochterlony, the war and campaign were concluded within the short space of a month and a day.

By the conditions of this treaty the

Nepaulese renounced all the lands respecting which there had been any prior discussion, all the territories within the hills eastward of the river Mitchee, including the fort and lands of Nagree and the pass of Nagorcote, and all claims of every description to the country lying west of the Cali branch of the Goggra river. Within the large tract last-mentioned, Kumaon, the Deyrah Doon, and some other small portions of territory, were annexed to the British dominions; but with these exceptions, the whole country west of the Cali was restored to the surviving representatives of the families which had possessed it before the Gorkha invasion. In cases where the ancient families had become extinct, the lands were bestowed on chiefs who had served with zeal and fidelity.

During the progress of these events the Chinese did now view with unconcern the operations of a war so near their own frontier, and appeals for assistance had been repeatedly made from Catmandoo; insinuating that the red coats were only desirous of penetrating through Nepaul, in order to attack the grand Lama and the Celestial Empire. After a lapse of four months, however, a reply arrived from the emperor, in which he expressed himself convinced that the Gorkhas had brought the war on themselves by their pertinacious encroachments, and that whenever the British invaded his dominions, he would know how to act without instructions from Nepaul. Under pretence, however, of punishing the contumacy of the latter, a Chinese army of 15,000, commanded by five generals of superior rank, was assembled, and actually advanced to Tingri, the scene of important operations in the war of 1792. A complete change of political relations now took place, for the ministers of Nepaul eagerly supplicated the protection of the British government, which recommended their sending agents to negotiate an arrangement with the Chinese, which, after some blustering on the part of the latter, was amicably done. With respect to Nepaul, the Chinese were probably themselves sensible of the embarrassment attending so distant a conquest, opening to them new relations and connexions, the cultivation of which could scarcely be compatible with their long-established maxims of political wisdom. On the other hand, no motives of interest or ambition prompted the British government to extend its influence beyond the barriers, which appear to have been placed by nature between the vast empires of Hindostan and China.

On the 20th July 1816 Ammer Singh Thappa, the distinguished Gorkha commander, who fought so hardily against Sir D. Ochterlony (who, like a true soldier, did him ample justice), died, aged 68, at Nilacantha, a place of reputed sanctity five days' journey north from Catmandoo. Like a second Hannibal, this veteran, to the last day of his life, was actively engaged in negotiations and intrigues (principally with China), with the view of stirring up enemies to the enemies of his country. Two of his widows devoted themselves on the occasion, one having sacrificed herself on the spot, while the other was under preparation for burning at a temple within the valley of Catmandoo.

On the 20th November 1816 the young Raja of Nepaul, while his ministers and principal functionaries were deliberating regarding the expediency of having him vaccinated, died of the small-pox, caught in the natural way. One of his rannies or queens, one of his concubines, and five female attendants, burned with the corpse. The last words of the unfortunate ranny were collected and treasured up, as whatever a suttee (a widow burning with her husband) utters at the pile is supposed to be prophetic. The deceased prince left one son three years of age, named Rajindra Bickram Sah, who succeeded to the throne, under the guardianship of Bheem Singh Thappa, without bloodshed or disturbance, a cir-

cumstance unprecedented in the annals of Nepaul.

In 1820 the cabinet at Catmandoo despatched Gooroo Raj Misser on a friendly mission to the Governor-general, then on a visit to the upper provinces, and this envoy dying soon after, the jaghire he held in Benares was continued by the Bengal presidency to his two widows. In 1821 Bheem Singh Thappa,commonly called the general (the English word being used by the natives) still continued prime minister, in which capacity he despatched Nursingh Thappa (a younger son of the late commander AmmerSinghThappa's) to Kootee on the Tibet frontier,to receive a mandate from the Emperor of China, which however did not arrive, having been deferred until next year, being the fifth, in each of which periods a complimentary mission is sent from Catmandoo to Pekin. It accordingly took place in 1822, but under Dulbunjun Pandi.—(*F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, Knox, Prinsep, Gardner, Public MS. Documents, N. Macleod, J. Ahmuty, &c.*)

NERBUDDA (*Narmada, from narma, pleasure; da, she who bestows*).—The source of this river does not yet appear to have been explored by any European, which is rather extradinary considering its vicinity to the British possessions. According to native testimony it rises in a pool or well on the table-land of Omerkuntuc in Gundwana, 2,463 feet above the level of the sea, close to the source of the Sone, which flows N.E. until it joins the Ganges, so that the spot is probably one of the highest in this quarter of India. From hence its course is due west with fewer curvatures than most Indian rivers, until after a journey of about 700 miles, including windings, it falls into the sea below Broach almost due west from its source. During its passage it is much obstructed by rocks, islands, shallows, and rapids, which render its navigation in most parts difficult or impracticable until it enters Gujerat, where it is navigable for small craft eleven miles above Tulluckwara, above 100 miles from the sea. Here commences a wild and hilly tract, which extends ninety miles east, in some parts of which the breadth of the stream is so contracted, and its channel so much obstructed, that its further ascent by water is impracticable. Above the Herrin Pahl, or deer's leap, it is narrow and rapid, but it becomes again navigable about fifteen miles below Chculda, and, with the exception of a few places where short portages might be established, continues so for some distance to the east of Hussingabad. With respect to its breadth there is much variation. At Sacur, to the west of Jubbulpoor, it is about 600 yards in breadth; at Mundleysir, 1,200; and above and below Broach, where there are several islands, it expands sometimes to the breadth of three miles. In the month of March at the Mundleysir cantonment, it is 671 feet above the level of the sea, from which it is distant by the course of the stream 210 miles. Could this river be rendered navigable and connected with the Mahanuddy, it would greatly enrich the provinces through which they flow from the west of India to the bay of Bengal. During the wars of 1817 and 1818 the British government acquired large tracts of country contiguous, which in 1819 were denominated the Nerbudda districts, with the distinguishing names of North Gurrah or Jubbulpoor; South Gurrah or Nursingpoor, and the western districts, or Baitool, Hoshungabad, and Seunce Chuparah. The jumma of the whole in 1820, including collections of all kinds, amounted to 18,76,398 rupees.

The name of Deccan was formerly applied by Hindoo geographers to the whole of the countries situated to the south of the Nerbudda, but the term Deccan now signifies in Hindostan the countries comprehended between that river and the Krishna. Besides its use as a geographical boundary, the Nerbudda serves to divide two sects of astronomers, who distribute

time on different principles. Thus, whereas the Vrihaspati, or Jupiter's year of the cycle of sixty, is reckoned at Benares, Oojein and south to the Nerbudda, to be equal to the time during which that planet describes one sign of its orbit; in all the Deccan and south of India it is taken to be equal to a solar year; and while the northern astronomers reckon the latter to be 365 days, six hours, twelve minutes and thirty-four seconds, agreeably to the doctrines of the Surya Siddhanta, those who reside south of the Nerbudda make it only 365 days, six hours, twelve minutes and thirty seconds. By Ptolemy the Nerbudda (properly Narmada) is designated the Namadus.—(*Malcolm, Warren, Blunt, Colebrooke, Wilks, &c.*)

Neriad.—A town in the province of Gujerat, district of Kaira, twenty-eight miles N.N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22° 44′ N., lon. 73° E. This place and pergunnah was ceded in 1803 by the Guicowar, in part payment of the subsidiary force, when the revenue was valued at 17,000 rupees per annum.

Nerinjapettah.—A small town in the northern division of Coimbatoor, eighty-eight miles S.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 40′ N., lon. 77° 48′ E. This place is situated on the west bank of the Cavery, which here begins to rise about the 26th of May, and is at its highest from the 13th of July until the 13th of August, before the rainy season commences. As this advances it decreases in size, but does not become fordable until after the 11th of January. Among the hills in the neighbourhood are many black bears, which are very harmless animals, living chiefly on white ants, wild fruits, and that of the palmyra. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Nernallah (*Narayanalaya*).—A district in the province of Berar, situated above the chain of mountains extending from Ajuntee to the Wurda river. The town of Nernallah, which communicates its name to this tract, has long been a place of note, and is mentioned by Abul Fazel in 1582, as "a large fort, containing many buildings, and situated on the top of a high mountain." The principal river is the Purna, into which numberless little contributary streams flow from the mountains, but the country in general is thinly peopled, and indifferently cultivated.

Neuralyia Pattan.—An elevated mountain tract in the island of Ceylon, situated about thirty-three miles south from Candy. In point of elevation this region probably surpasses any other in Ceylon, as for a space of from fifteen to twenty miles in circumference the average height may be estimated at 5,300 feet above the level of the sea. Being surrounded by the tops of mountains, which have the appearance of moderate-sized hills, its appearance is that of a table-land, elevated and depressed by numerous hills and hollows. Beautiful as this tract is, and possessing a probably healthy climate, like the similar heights of Maturatta and Fort Macdonald, it is wholly abandoned to the *feræ naturæ*, more especially to the grave elephant, which notwithstanding the coolness of the temperature, makes it his abode, being attracted by the excellence of its pasture, the seclusion of its recesses, and above all by the absence of his persecutor, the two-legged miscreant.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Newahy.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-seven miles S. by E. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 33′ N., lon. 75° 44′ E. This is a large, and was once a prosperous place, but having been sacked by Ameer Khan, was deserted by its inhabitants, who returned, however, after the pacification of 1818. Newahy stands at the base of an abrupt rock on the verge of a plain that stretches from hence to Jeypoor. On the rock above is the stone fort of Nharghur, with fifteen round bastions. The swelling sands in front of the town are verdant with groves of tamarind and peepul trees, and strewed in every direction with monuments of

widow burnings, artificial reservoirs, temples, and gardens.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NEWARY.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles S.E. from Dewass, which in 1820 contained 200 houses; lat. 22° 52′ N., lon. 76° 22′ E.

NEWTEE.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, captured from the Maharattas in 1818; lat. 15° 55′ N., lon. 73° 40′ E., thirty-eight miles N.N.W. from Goa.

NEYER.—A small district in the province of Gujerat, and situated at its north-western extremity. To the west it approaches the Runn, and the country generally is of an arid and sandy nature, without streams or rivers. The desert encroaches to near the banks of the Lonee, where a fertile tract commences, inhabited by Rajpoots and subject to Joudpoor. Water for drinking is procured from wells, but these in some seasons afford but a precarious supply. The inhabitants consist principally of Coolies, a proportion of Rajpoots, and of late years Mahomedans, all until late years robbers by profession.

The principal town in this province is Wow, to the westward of which are Bakasir, Gurrah, and Rhardra, the last being about forty miles west from Wow. In 1820 the Sonegiras, a branch of the Chowhan Rajpoots, occupied the Neyer from Jampi to Gusra, the nominal head being the raja of Chitulwara. At that date the Neyer and the Thull were almost completely desolated. This district, like most sandy countries, abounds with horses of a superior quality, which formerly enabled the plundering Rajpoots to extend their ravages over a great tract of country as far as Jhingwara in Gujerat. The Coolies here are armed with the teerkampta, hardened by smoke, and curved like the blade of a sabre. This weapon they can throw 120 yards, at which distance, they assert, they can break a man's leg, or kill him if they strike the head. In 1820 Neyer was subject to Joudpoor.—(*Macmurdo, Elphinstone, Miles, &c.*)

NEYNWAH.—A strong town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Boondee, thirty miles travelling distance from its capital. This is a large place enclosed by an irregular stone wall, and nearly inaccessible from the extensive jeels that almost surround it. Towards the south-east, where there is no jeel, the wall is double and protected by a wet ditch. Hindoo temples, images, chetries, &c. are scattered in profusion about the neighbourhood. In 1820 strangers and travellers were not permitted to enter this fortress.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NHAURGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifty-four miles E. by S. from Kotah; lat. 25° 9′ N., lon. 76° 36′ E.

NHO (*or Nouh*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated N. by W. from the town of Agra; lat. 27° 51′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E. This town has long been noted for the manufacture of a culinary salt distinguished by the name of salumba, and procured by crystallization from the water of saline springs in the neighbourhood. In the financial year 1215 (1808-9) the stock on hand amounted to 880,000 maunds, being the produce of between three and four years. The quantity annually required for consumption and exportation prior to that date averaged about two and a half lacks, but a considerable increase was anticipated in consequence of the general tranquillity and the opening of new marts. The price at the wells is from two to five annas per maund, according to quality for exportation, and eight annas for local consumption on the right bank of the Jumna, the duty on the importation into the Doab being then the principal profit accruing to government.—(*J. T. Brown, E. W. Blunt, &c.*)

NIAGUR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, thirty-two miles south from Omerkuntuc; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon. 84° 4′ E.

NICOBAR ISLANDS.—These islands are situated in the S.E. quarter of the bay of Bengal, between the sixth

and tenth degrees of north latitude, and occupy the intervening space from the N.W. point of Sumatra to the most southerly of the Andamans. The largest of this cluster is named Sambelong, but those most known to Europeans are Carnicobar and Nancowry. There are also the islands of Batty, Malui, Choury, Theresa, Bempoka, Katchal, Camorta (or Comarty). Trincutte, Tellachong, and the little Nicobar, besides a multitude of small islets without any distinct appellation.

Most of these islands are hilly, and some of the mountains elevated, but Trincutte and Carnicobar are flat and covered with coco-nut trees. The other islands have also a large proportion of coco-nut and areca palms, with timber trees of various kinds, some of an enormous size. The vallies and sides of the hills are so thickly covered with them that the sun's beams cannot penetrate through their foliage, and in some places they are so thickly interwoven with rattans and bush rope that they appear spun together, and render the woods almost dark. The leaves, twigs, and fruits falling down rot below, which circumstance contributes to render the island extremely unhealthy, and absolutely pestilential to a European constitution. There are trees of great height and size in these woods, of a compact substance and fit for naval purposes; some have been cut above thirty feet in circumference.

There are none of the beasts of prey here, such as tigers and leopards, so common on continental India. Monkeys are found in some islands; in others cattle and buffaloes, originally imported by the Danes, but which have run wild in the woods since the colony was abandoned. Dogs and swine are found in most of the islands. Snakes are plenty, but not so numerous or venomous as on the coast of Coromandel. Alligators of great size are numerous, and crabs swarm over some of the islands. The number and variety of shell-fish is so great, that the most beautiful collections may be made with very little trouble.

The natives of these islands appear to be a mild, inoffensive race, without any destructive weapon except a fish-gig, their occupations being principally fishing and trading to the neighbouring islands. The females are employed in preparing the victuals and cultivating the ground. There is a considerable traffic carried on among the islands, the chief articles of which are cloth, silver coin, iron, tobacco, and some other commodities obtained from Europeans; and also the produce of their own islands, such as coco-nuts, betel-nuts, fowls, hogs, canoes, spears, birds'-nests, ambergris, and tortoise-shells. The chief productions of the Nicobars are the coco and betel-nut trees. Most of the country ships bound to Rangoon touch here in order to procure a cargo of coco-nuts, which they purchase at the rate of four for a leaf of tobacco, and 100 for a yard of blue cloth. Wild cinnamon and sassafras may also be procured, and a nutritive fruit called by the Portuguese the mellori, which in some respects resembles the jack fruit of Bengal, and grows on a species of palm abundant in the woods. Both the dogs and hogs are fed on coco-nuts, here the staff of life, and the quality of the pork is excellent. Tobacco is the current medium of all exchange and barter.

Ten or twelve huts compose a village, each of which has a captain, who carries on the bartering trade with the ships that arrive, but he has otherwise no peculiar privileges. The chief food of the inhabitants is the mellori bread, which is very palatable, together with coco-nuts and yams. The clothing of the men consists of a narrow piece of cloth about three yards long, which they wrap round their waist, then passing it between their legs, and through the girth behind, leave the end of it to drag behind them; and from this circumstance originated the fabulous stories of men with tails, related by Kioping the Swedish navigator. They are so

jealous of their females, that Lieut. Collinson, who in 1823 remained for some weeks on the small island of Bempoka, and frequently visited the natives in their huts, declares that during the whole time he never saw one

The inhabitants of the Nicobars do not follow any of the systems of religion prevalent on the Indian continent, or among the Eastern Isles, and their notions of a divine being, if they actually have any, are extremely perplexed and unintelligible. Their paters (an appellation borrowed from the Portuguese) act in the treble capacity of conjurer, physician, and priest. For the expulsion of evil spirits they depend chiefly on exorcisms, the process in effecting which is accompanied with the most horrible grimaces. Mr. Haensel, the Danish missionary, relates that he was present when one of these physicians undertook to cure a woman who was unwell. After a succession of most hideous faces the sorcerer produced a large yam, pretending that he had extracted it from the body of the woman, and that the enchanted yam had been the cause of her disorder.

The missionaries never attained any considerable proficiency in the Nicobarean language, which they found attended with peculiar difficulties. It is remarkably poor in words, and such is the indolence of the natives, that as long as they can express what they mean by signs, they are unwilling to open their mouths for the purpose of speaking. Both men and women carry always in their mouths a large quid of betel, which impedes their articulation, and renders their speech a sort of indistinct sputtering, accompanied by a shower of saliva. In their common jargon there are many Malay words borrowed from European and Asiatic languages. It is said they have no expression for numbers beyond forty, except by multiplication.

A commercial establishment was formed on these islands in 1756 by the Danes, who new-named them Frederick's islands; but the enterprize was unsuccessful, all the colonists from Tranquebar dying within a few years. A new arrangement was formed in 1768, in conjunction with the Baptist missionaries; but they also died so fast, that in 1771 only two Europeans and four Malabar servants survived. A few intrepid and indefatigable missionaries continued to reside on the islands, receiving supplies from Tranquebar, and also additional brethren in place of those that died; but the mortality continuing incessant, and no progress whatever having been made in the conversion of the natives, the mission was finally abandoned in 1787. Since then but little intercourse has taken place, except with casual passing vessels, until 1823, when Lieut. Collinson was sent from Prince of Wales' island to make inquiries respecting two country ships reported to have been cut off among the Nicobars. The rumour proved to be unfounded, and the natives remained the same quiet race the Danes had left them. They complained bitterly of the depredations committed by the crews of the Burmese boats that came to fish for sea-slugs, who stole their hogs and poultry.—(*Haensel, Fontana, Collinson, &c.*)

NIDGUTI.—A small town and district in Mysore, forty-five miles east from Chittledroog; lat. 14° 10′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.

NILKANTHA.—A town of pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan, said to be eight days' journey north from Catmandu, although only thirty-seven miles of horizontal distance; lat. 28° 22′ N., lon. 85° 4′ E. This place is visited about the end of July and beginning of August, yet the road is scarcely passable on account of the great depth of snow; avalanches being common, and glaciers of frequent occurrence. During this short season a fair is held and many temporary shops opened; but when the cold season sets in it is abandoned by all, who seek a mild climate. According to native reports there are eight springs here, one of which is

hot. Another pool, named Suryacoond, is about a mile further east, and immediately beyond it rises the immense peak of Gosain Sthan, from the east side of which a branch of the Causiki rises. The name (Nil Kantha) means blue throat, an epithet of Siva, originating from an exploit performed by him while the gods were churning the ocean, and related at great length in the Hindoo mythological poems.—(*F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Nilun.—A Tartar village in Tibet, situated on the Jahnevi or Nilun river, in the district of Chungsa, and dependent on Chaprang, said to be six days' easy journey further up; lat. 31° 6′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E. Height above the level of the sea 11,127 feet. From hence there is said to be a road passable for horses to Chaprung.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Nilun River.—A river of Northern Hindostan which has its rise in Tibet, whence it flows from the north-east, and having penetrated the Himalaya, ultimately joins the Bhagarithi or true Ganges. Apparently this is the remotest source of the river that passes Calcutta, under the name of Hooghly.

Ningti River.—A river of the interior of India beyond the Ganges, not far from the frontiers of Silhet, and supposed to be the commencement of the western branch of the Irawady. From Tummoo (a Burmese stockade) it is five marches to the Ningti river through a saul forest of large trees. This river is described as a magnificent one, and eight hundred yards broad even in the month of February. From the Ningti to Amarapoora the road is said to be quite practicable. The Kheeoo or varnish tree (*melanorhea usitatissima*) is particularly abundant in Kibboo, a valley on the banks of the Ningti, between Munipoor and Ava, where it grows to so large a size that it affords planks above three feet in breadth, and in appearance and grain very like mahogany. Some have been found thirteen feet in circumference. The varnish is extracted annually through an incision at the commencement of the rains, each tree yielding about a gallon.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Niti (*or Lili*).—A ghaut or pass thus named, leading from Northern Hindostan to Tibet, stretching along the banks of the Dauli, which from its size and length of course ought to be considered the principal branch of the Ganges. The mountains on either side are generally composed of rocks scarped perpendicularly, the sides of the chasms in some parts approaching so close as to admit their being crossed on wooden scaffoldings, supported from crag to crag. When this is not practicable it is necessary to climb the mountains, where in one instance, to gain a horizontal distance of 280 yards, forming the base of a triangle, one mile must first be ascended and another descended. The village of Niti stands at the base of a small range of hills which defend it from the north and west; lat. 30° 47′ N., lon. 79 56′ E. A gorge between the western hills and those to the south admits the Niti river, but the valley is closed up about a mile to the east, by an ascent covered with birch trees, and leading to many gorges and ridges of a high mountain topped with snow. In front of the town towards the river are small terraces, descending by steps, which are cultivated. Owing to its great elevation persons from the low countries experience a difficulty of breathing. In the beginning of June the thermometer ranges from 40° to 50° in the morning, to 70° and 80° in the middle of the day, with rain and slight snow at night. At that season of the year the birch trees and rose bushes are just bursting into life, the furze coming into blossom, and the barley and other grains sown. Vegetable life on the return of the warm season is here called rapidly into action, after having had its vital powers so long torpid and suspended.

The changes of the atmosphere at Niti are very sudden and violent. The cold of the evening commences so early as three P. M., about which time the flying clouds become murky and stationary, envelope the tops of the mountains, and roll down their sides, discharging their contents in snow on the higher, and rain on the lower ranges. Lightning and thunder rarely occur; but a glow of clear-coloured light overhangs the summits of the snow-covered peaks on the darkest nights. In the beginning of June, in the morning, the tops of the highest mountains are covered with snow; about noon the ravines between the ridges are cleared, but it remains in the clefts and gorges. Between three P.M. and next morning the mountain resumes its robes of white, which process of deposition and dissolution goes on during the dry months. When the cold season sets in the mountaineers are obliged to quit their temporary habitations, and leave them to such wild animals as prefer them to glens and caverns. The whole surface of the vallies as well as of the mountains is then covered with snow, which in some parts melts under the influence of heat and rain, but in others continues unchanged. To this mass of melting snow, many of the large rivers are indebted for their tributary waters, which pour down in numberless streams and torrents, and are the real sources of the Ganges.

In 1818 Capt. Webb, under the character of an European merchant, endeavoured to open a commercial intercourse with Deba, the nearest Chinese post to Niti, in hopes of being permitted to advance to the banks of the Sutuleje, only about fifteen miles distance to the north, where, in the rear of the great Himalaya range, many interesting observations might have been made. All his attempts, however, were baffled, although dextrously conducted, by the invincible caution or obstinacy of that jealous people, the chain of whose authority appears to stretch with unbroken strength from Pekin to this elevated and secluded station. By a mean of four barometers Capt. Webb found the crest of the Niti ghaut to be 16,814 feet above the level of the sea; the valley of the Sutuleje he estimated at 14,924 feet.—(*Moorcroft, Trail, Webb, &c.*)

NIZAM.—See HYDERABAD.

NIZAMPATAM. — A town in the Northern Circars, forty-three miles S.W. from Masulipatam; lat. 15° 54′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E. A considerable coasting trade is carried on here in craft navigated by the natives.

NOAKOTE (*nava cata, the new fort.*)—A town in Northern Hindostan, division of Nepaul Proper, situated on a hill on the east side of the Trisoolgunga, seventeen miles N. by W. from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 53′ N., lon. 85° 50′ E. This place is not of any great extent, but it contains some of the largest and best looking houses in Nepaul. Its position is also of importance, as commanding the only entrance into this quarter from Upper as well as from Lower Tibet, and standing close to Mount Dhyboón, by which the Chinese army was obliged to descend in 1792, when penetrating into Nepaul. The temple of Noakote is dedicated to Mahamaya or Bhavani, and is a brick building on the face of a hill, with nothing remarkable in its appearance. From the roof there are numerous offerings to the goddess suspended, consisting principally of brass vessels and weapons of various sorts, among the latter some trophies acquired from the Chinese.

The valley of Noakote is about six miles in length, by one and a quarter in breadth. The soil is extremely fruitful, and notwithstanding its proximity to the snowy mountains which enclose it to the north, it is capable of bearing all the vegetable productions of the province of Bahar. The Trisoolgunga river which traverses it is held in much veneration. This valley, although so near to the hills, is reckoned one of the least elevated

in Nepaul Proper, which accounts for its greater temperature as compared with that of Catmandoo, from whence the court frequently migrates, to pass the winter at Noakote. After the middle of April the heat is intense. Besides rice, considerable quantities of sugar-cane are raised in this valley, and the gour or impure sugar is here brought to market in a more refined state than is usual in Bengal. The garlic has remarkable large cloves, and the pine apples, guavas, and mangoes, are excellent. — (*Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

NOANAGUR (*Navanagara, the new city*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated about seven miles south from the Gulf of Cutch; lat. 22° 55′ N., lon. 70° 14′ E. The jam of Noanagur, in respect to territory, revenue, and resources, may be reckoned the most considerable chief in the Gujerat peninsula.

The district of Noanagur consists of four divisions, *viz.* Nuggur, Kambalia (or Surya), Sutchana, and Jooria, the last of which has been alinated by the Khowas family. The country inland from the city is extremely rocky, but it produces plentiful crops of jowary, growing apparently out of the stones, so entirely is the soil concealed. What is sown in the narrow vallies in October, is reaped in May and June. In the neighbourhood of the small villages the sugar-cane is cultivated. This crop is so hazardous that in India it is usually only raised under peaceable governments, where the peasantry are in good circumstances, and secure of reaping where they have sown. The crops of grain here are comparatively small, water being so near the surface, and the Gujerat peninsula generally having many small streams with low banks, so as to admit of irrigation.

The town itself is asserted by the natives to be three coss in circumference, and defended by a wall of no great strength, built about forty-five years ago. It contains many weavers, who manufacture a considerable quantity of coarse and fine cloth, some sorts of a very beautiful fabric; and the river Nagni, which flows under the walls, is supposed by the natives to possess some quality peculiarly favourable to the dyeing of cloth, for the excellence of which the town is celebrated.

All the Noanagur villages within twelve or fifteen miles of the Runn are fortified with walls for their defence. The cultivators generally pay one-third to government, which appoints a person to value the crop; besides this a tax is levied on animals, and another on men. Korees are struck in Cutch under the authority of the row, and others under that of the jam of Noanagur. It is a small handsome silver coin, and its average value four to a rupee. Not far from this place are two or three beds of pearl oysters, which contain pearls of an inferior quality, and even these by improper management are almost exhausted.

The appellation of jam to the chieftain of Noanagur, is a title of honour which has descended to him from his ancestors. The Hindoos derive it from a Sanscrit source, and the Mahomedans from Jumsheed, a renowned sovereign of Persia, but both are ignorant of its true import. It is, however, assumed by the chief of Noanagur only; the other chiefs of Hallaur prefixing the word Jahrejah, before their names. Their sons are called kooer. The Jahrejahs generally pay but little regard to any religion. In 1808 Jam Jessajee of this petty principality was considered a convert to the Mahomedan faith, of which he observed the external forms, and held Brahmins in execration.

The British government came first into contact with this petty state in the year 1808, when Jessajee, the reigning jam, entered into a treaty with the Bombay government, which fixed his tribute to the Guicowar at 95,000 rupees. From this period the Noanagur state afforded the best example of good order and subordination to the other principalities of the Gujerat peninsula: in consequence,

in 1815, the British government was induced to support the jam against the rebellious proceedings of the Jooria chief, who had imported a large body of Arabs from Cutch, and treacherously possessed himself of several forts the property of Noanagur. On this occasion Jam Santajee, who in 1818 had succeeded his brother Jussajee, defrayed the expense of the Bombay detachment, amounting to 8,50,000 rupees. — (*Macmurdo, Walker, Public MS. Reports, &c.*)

NOAPOORA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, forty-five miles east from Surat; lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. In 1818 it was made a temporary depôt of supply for the armies serving to the north of Bombay.

NOAPOORA (*Navapura*).—A small and thinly inhabited village in the province of Candeish. The surrounding country consists of low hills, interspersed with Bheel hamlets, this rude tribe forming the great bulk of the population. There is a square ghurry near the village, the inhabitants of which are mostly Brahmins.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

NOELGUNGE.—A considerable town in the province of Oude, fortified with brick walls, fifteen miles W.S.W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 47′ N., lon. 80° 33′ E. There is an extensive manufactory of the different kinds of brass vessels used by the natives of Hindostan for domestic and culinary purposes.

NOGURBERA.—A frontier town and custom-house in Assam, situated on the south bank of the Brahmaputra, twenty-six miles east from Goalpara; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 91° 3′ E.

NOLYE.—A considerable town belonging to Sindia in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 1,000 houses; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 75° 27′ E., twenty-nine miles W.S.W. from Oojein, and 1,608 feet above the level of the sea. Nolye was built by Raja Nol, from whom its name originated; but its modern one is Buruuggur, the first being thought of bad omen if pronounced before breakfast.

NOMURDIES. — When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, one of the chief Baloochy tribes was named Nomurdies, as appears from his description of them, *viz.* "Another chain of mountains runs from Sehwan to Sewee, where it is called Khuttee. Here dwell a tribe named Nomurety, who can raise 300 cavalry and 700 infantry. At the foot of this territory is another tribe of Baloochies named Tehzing, who have a thousand choice troops. There is another range of mountains, one extremity of which is on Cutch, and the other joins the territories of the Kulmainies, where it is called Kureh. It is inhabited by 4,000 Baloochies."—(*Abul Fazel, &c.*)

NOOKHUR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fourteen miles W. by S. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 56′ N., lon. 77° 17′ E.

NOONY (*lavani, brackish*). — A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, seventy-four miles W.N.W. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 28′ N., lon. 87° 8′ E.

NOORABAD (*of light, the abode*).— A large village in the province of Agra, situated on the south of the Sank river, thirteen miles N. by W. from Gualior; lat. 26° 25′ N., lon. 77° 56′ E. Adjoining to Noorabad is a large garden laid out by Aurengzebe, within which is a monument to the memory of Goona Begum, a princess celebrated for her mental and personal accomplishments. Many of her compositions in the Hindostany language are still sung and admired. The shrine bears this inscription in Persian, — "Alas! alas! Goona Begum!"

NOORCONDY.—A town in the province and district of Bejapoor, about thirty-eight miles travelling distance S.S.W. from the city of Bejapoor. This place stands on a base of reddish stone, and is built of the same materials. On an elevated rock to

the south-west is a remarkable stone fort, of rude architecture, with lofty circular bastions.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NOORGOOL. — A small district in the province of Bejapoor, situated in the doab (or space included by) of the two rivers Gutpurba and Malpurba. The principal towns are Badaumy and Ramdroog.

NOORI.—A village in the province of Mooltan, division of Sinde, situated on the banks of the Fulalee, fifteen miles below Hyderabad; lat. 25° 8′ N.

NOORNAGUR (*Nurnagara, the city of light*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Tiperah, fifty miles E. by N. from Dacca; lat. 23° 45′ N., lon. 91° 5′ E.

NOOSHUHRA.—A town in the province of Mooltan, division of Sinde, fifty miles N. by W. from Hyderabad; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 68° 33′ E.

NORA.—A country of India beyond the Ganges, south of Assam and north of Ava, between the Irawady and Keynduem rivers, which in 1795 was tributary to the Burmese sovereign, but had nevertheless princes of its own, derived from the same stock as the family that then governed Assam. The natives are said to speak a dialect very little different from that of Siam, and call themselves Thaylown; but they are also designated as the Cassi Shan or Kathi Shan.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

NORTH-EAST MONSOON.—See COROMANDEL.

NORUNGA.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, situated on the great Benares road, 331 miles N.W. from Calcutta, and about eighty S.S.W. from Patna.

NORUNGABAD.—A small town surrounded by a brick wall, in the province and district of Agra, about five miles S. by E. from Mathura.

NOWAGHUR (*Navaghar*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated at the junction of the Hatsoo with the Mahanuddy river, 110 miles S.W. from Sumbhulpoor; lat. 20° 49′ N., lon. 82° 43′ E. This is one of the most productive pergunnahs in the Choteeaghur division. In 1819 the Nowaghur zemindar was described as a wild Gond, whose estate consisted of villages extorted from the rajas of Bustar, Jeypoor, Kharound, Conkair, and Patna for military services.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

NOWAH.—A native fortress in Berar, twenty miles N.E. of Nandere, which in 1818 was occupied by Nowsajee Naik, the chief of a refractory banditti, with which the province then swarmed. It was in consequence stormed by a detachment under Major Pittman, commanding the Nizam's regular infantry in Berar, and captured after a desperate resistance. The garrison amounted to 600 men mostly Arabs, of whom not above twenty remained unhurt: 439 bodies were buried next day. The British casualties were thirty-two men killed and 176 (including six British and ten native officers) wounded. Nowah had been fortified by an Armenian who had acquired some knowledge of the European system of fortification.

NOWAPOORA (*Nava pura*). — A town in the province of Malwa, fourteen miles E. of Soneghur. The hills to the south produce tolerably large teak trees.

NOWGAON (*Nava grama*). — A town in the province of Gundwana, which in 1820 belonged to the British government, and contained 200 houses; lat. 22°42′ N., lon. 75°28′ E.

NUBBEEGUNGE (*the prophet's gunge*). —A town in the province of Agra, eighteen miles S.W. from Furruckabad; lat. 27°14′ N., lon. 79°15′ E.

NUDDEA (*Navadwipa, the new island*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated immediately to the north of Calcutta, between the twenty-second and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Rajeshahy; on the south by the twenty-four per-

gunnahs and Jessore; to the east it has Jessore, and to the west it is separated from Burdwan by the river Hooghly.

This district is large and wonderfully rich in all the dearer productions of an Indian soil, but this being remarkably light, the land is only capable of undergoing tillage for three successive years, after which it must be left fallow for an equal period. The most valuable articles of produce are mulberry trees, hemp, flax, tobacco, sugar, and oush, a plant from which a red dye is procured. In 1802 it was supposed that the cultivation of the district subsequent to the first year of the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered permanent, had increased one-eighth, and that the proportion of the cultivated to the uncultivated land as it then stood was as follows:

Jungle............ Begas. 105,000
Ground lying fallow . 1,959,500
For cultivation 1,959,500

In Nuddea there are seven descriptions of rent-free land, the aggregate of which may be computed at 900,000 begas, but the revenue lands are generally observed to be the best cultivated. The possessors of these rent-free lands seldom give leases, on which account the tenants are liable to be much imposed on and dispossessed, should their farms improve and crops prove redundant; government renters, on the other hand, being protected in the occupation of their lands, take more pains, and prefer it although encumbered with a land tax. In general proprietors of estates receive much more than ten per cent. on the jumma, or assessment to the revenue. With regard to water carriage this district is singularly happy, possessing an easy and quick transportation by the rivers Hooghly, Jellinghy, and Issamutty, yet the revenue bears no comparison to that realized in the adjacent district of Burdwan, which does not enjoy so important an advantage. In 1814 the total produce of the land-tax amounted to 1,191,133 rupees. There are here many embankments to prevent the devastation of rivers; but the soil is so light and sandy, that it is ill adapted for the formation of embankments capable of resisting any great lateral pressure.

In 1802 the collector, in reply to queries circulated by the Board of Revenue, stated that in the district of Nuddea there were then 5,749 hamlets and villages, supposed to contain 127,405 houses, which at six persons to a house would give 764,430 inhabitants, of which number he supposed 286,661 were Mahomedans; but from the returns of other districts, since made with increased accuracy, it is probable that the above sum total is much under the real amount. With respect to the police of Nuddea, it appears to have greatly improved since 1807, when dacoity (or gang robbery) in Bengal had attained its acmé. In 1784, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, this collectorate contained 3,115 square miles, but it has probably since received a considerable accession of territory, as one of the reasons stated in 1814 for the difficulty of establishing an efficient police, was the great extent under the supervision of the magistrate.—(*J. Grant, Sir A. Seton, &c.*)

NUDDEA.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated at the confluence of the Jellinghy and Cossimbazar branches of the Ganges, where their junction forms the Hooghly, about sixty miles north from Calcutta; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 88° 24′ E.

This was the capital of a Hindoo principality anterior to the Mahomedan conquest, and was taken and entirely destroyed by Mahomed Bukhtyar Khilijee, the first Musulmaun invader of Bengal. In more recent times it has been the seat of Brahminical learning, which apparently must have declined to a very obscure condition, as in 1801 the judge and magistrate, while replying to the Marquis Wellesley's queries, declares that he knows not of any seminaries within the district in which either the Hindoo or Ma-

homedan law is taught. We learn, however, from the government records, that prior to 1811 a certain sum was disbursed for the support of the Hindoo college at Nuddea, but wholly inefficient for the attainment of the end proposed, the preservation and revival of Hindoo literature. During that year, under Lord Minto's administration, more vigorous measures were carried into execution to re-organize and augment the existing college, but it does not appear with any better success.

Within a mile of Nuddea, and close to the point of junction of the Cossimbazar with the Jellinghy and Hooghly rivers, there is a temple dedicated to Krishna, ornamented with a handsome dome in imitation of the Mahomedan style of architecture, which in 1819 the river was rapidly undermining, although in all probability originally built at a considerable distance from its channel; such is the transitory nature of this light alluvial soil.—(*Lord Minto, Abul Fazel, J. Grant, Fullarton, &c.*)

NUDYAGONG (*Naduja grama*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, principality of Ditteah, nineteen miles W. by S. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 7′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E.

NUGGEENA.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of North Saharunpoor, which in 1809 contained 18,000 inhabitants; lat. 29° 27′ N., lon. 78° 26′ E., forty-seven miles N.N.W. from the town of Moradabad. Near to this place are some native works named Kuloo Khan's fort.

NUGORA.—A strong town in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Row of Ooniara, sixty-nine miles travelling distance south from Jeypoor. This place is covered by a lake on its western face, and encompassed with modern fortifications in better order and of a more formidable aspect than perhaps any town in Rajpootana. A very lofty inner wall of mud is covered by a fine rampart of stone masonry, and the whole protected by a spacious wet ditch. Up to 1820 no European had been permitted to enter this strong-hold.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NUGUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, eighty-one miles S.S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 23° 54′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E.

NUJIBABAD.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, ninety-five miles N.E. from Delhi; lat. 29° 37′ N., lon. 78° 12′ E. In length it is about six furlongs, with some regular broad streets, enclosed by barriers at different distances, and forming distinct bazars. The fort of Putturghur, built of a fine blue stone, and situated about a mile to the east of the town, is a noble piece of masonry, and though long consigned to neglect, its walls, gateways, and turrets still remain in high preservation. The situation of the town, however, is low, and the surrounding country swampy.

This town was built by Nujib ud Dowlah with the view of attracting the commerce between Cashmere and Hindostan; and a traffic is still carried on in wood, bamboos, copper, and tincal brought from the hills. The founder above-named lies buried in a grave here without ornament of any kind.—(*Hardwicke, Foster, Fullarton, &c.*)

NUJIFGHUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, district of Cawnpoor, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, twenty miles S.E. from the town of Cawnpoor. This is a busy commercial place of modern date, having been chiefly indebted for its existence to the vicinity of an extensive indigo work established here by the late General Claude Martine.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

NULDINGAH (*Naladanga*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, seventy-four miles N.E. by N. from Calicut; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 89° 7′ N.

NUMHULECOTE.—A small town in the province of Malabar, fifty-two miles E.N.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 32′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E.

NUMOONEE.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, seventy-two miles W. by S. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 41′ N., lon. 74° 23′ E.

NUNDEAL (named also Ghazipoor).—A populous town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, surrounded by a mud wall and protected by a mud fort; lat. 15° 23′ N., lon. 78° 37′ E., sixty-seven miles N.N.W. from Cuddapah, 717 feet above the level of the sea. A small river which runs on the north side supplies the inhabitants with water for irrigation and other purposes. The pass between Cummum and Nundeal is 1,767 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

NUNDERBAR.—A town in the province of Candeish, formerly of great extent, and still surrounded by an old wall, mostly in ruins; lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 74° 15′ E. The soil in the vicinity appears good, but the scarcity of water impedes cultivation. The tomb of Saadet Peer stands on a rocky hill a quarter of a mile from the town, and is said to have been built 750 years ago. Besides this there are many tombs and pagodas in the vicinity. In 1820 Nunderbar belonged to the British government, and contained about 500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

NUNDYDROOG (Nandidurga).—A strong hill-fort in Mysore, thirty-one miles N. by E. from Bangalore; lat. 13° 22′ N, lon. 77° 44′ E. This place is built on the top of a mountain shaped like a tadpole, 1,700 feet high, of which three-fourths of the circumference is inaccessible. The ascent is by a steep and slippery path, mostly cut in steps out of the rock, and about a mile and a half in length. It passes under several gateways and choultries, but meets no fortified lines until the summit is attained. There is a Hindoo temple on the apex, and the barracks, magazines, &c. are still standing, although no longer used, the custody of the droog being now left (1820) to a small sepoy guard posted at the gate, the garrison being stationed in the pettah. In a pass through the hills, about a mile to the west, an image of the bull Nundy, about nine feet high, in his usual recumbent posture, has been cut out of the rock; and in a temple within the pettah an image in the human shape is worshipped under the name of Nundy Iswara, or the god Nundy,

In 1791 this fortress ranked in point of strength next to Severndroog, Chitteldroog, and Kistnagherry, and was then stormed by a detachment under Major Gowdie, after an obstinate defence of three weeks. When Hyder took it from the Maharattas, it was after a tedious blockade of three years. Near to this place, among the hills of Chinraya Conda, the Pennar river (called in Sanscrit the Northern Pinakani) has its source. It runs towards the north, while the Palar, which also springs from near Nundy, flows southwards. These hills may therefore be looked upon as the highest part of the country in the centre of the land south of the Krishna. The sources of the Cavery and Toombudra rivers, towards the western side, are probably higher.—(*Fullarton, Dirom, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

NURAI.—A town and pass in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles S.S.W. from Teary; lat. 24° 24′ N., lon. 78° 34′ E.

NURGENHOTEE. — A hamlet in Northern Hindostan, thirty miles N.N.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 34′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E.

NURPOOR.—A town in the province of Lahore, forty-four miles N.N.E. from Amritsir; lat. 31° 58′ N., lon. 75° 22′ E. This place stands on the top of a high hill, ascended by steps, and in 1783, when visited by Mr. Foster, had the appearance of opulence and industry. Towards the S.E. the country is open and pleasant, with a winding stream of fine water, the heat being much moderated by the cool breezes from the northern hills, which during a con-

siderable part of the year are covered with snow. At the above date the Nurpoor district was bounded on the north by the Ravey; on the east by the Chambah country; on the west by some small Hindoo districts lying at the head of the Punjab and the Beyah rivers; and on the south by Hurreepoor. According to native authorities, in 1810 Nurpoor contained 7,500 houses, and fifty looms employed in the manufacture of cashmere shawls. The reigning chief, named Beer Singh, was a Pathaniya Rajpoot; his revenue two lacks of rupees and a half.

Nursinghur.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the south bank of the Sonar river, fifteen miles S.W. from Huttah; lat. 24° 0′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E.

Nursinghur (*Nara Singha gara*).—A petty state in the province of Malwa, tributary to Holcar, which from misrule and internal commotion had become impoverished, and an annoyance to the neighbouring country. In 1819 a complete settlement of this disturbed principality was made by Captain Henley, when the gross revenue amounted to about 60,000 rupees per annum. Lat. 23° 45′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Nursingpoor (*Nara Singha pura*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, ninety-three miles E.S.E. from Poona; lat. 17° 55′ N., lon. 75° 16′ E.

Nursobah.—A small village in the province of Bejapoor, principality of Colapoor, situated on a point of land formed by the junctions of the Krishna and the Paunchoo Gunga. This place derives its name from a temple dedicated to Nursoba (Nara-singha Deva), which stands by a well-built ghaut or flight of steps descending to the river Krishna, and is provided with an establishment of Brahmins. The ghaut on the opposite side of the river is magnificent, and the town of Corundwar, a short distance further, has a fine appearance.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Nusseerabad (*Nasirabad*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, about twelve travelling miles distant from the city of Ajmeer. It stands in a plain destitute of trees, and intersected by small ranges of barren hills, covered with pieces of loose rocky flint, the fragments of larger masses that protrude from the earth. Water of a brackish taste is only procurable from tanks and wells, which have been excavated at a great expense. The derivation of the name comes from Nasir ud Dowlah, a Persian title bestowed by the court of Delhi on Sir David Ochterlony.

Soon after the conclusion of the Pindary war in 1818 the cantonments of the British force employed in Rajpootana were established at this place. They are regularly laid out, and the public buildings well constructed; but timber being a scarce commodity, it is sparingly used both for building and fuel, and on the whole Nusseerabad is one of the most expensive stations in India to an officer. It is, however, generally esteemed a healthy station, and the climate pleasant, except during the hot winds. The rains are most refreshing, but seldom heavy or of long duration. Garden vegetables thrive well, although the soil is light, and the rock so near the surface. The grapes are considered the largest and best in Hindostan, and equal to the Shiraz, but fruit-trees will not grow; large supplies, however, are procured from Pokur, which is noted for its gardens and vineyards. In 1824 English cotton cloths, both white and printed, were to be seen among the natives in common use, and were sold remarkably cheap, as well as English hardware, crockery, writing-desks, &c. at Paulee, a celebrated mart in Marwar, on the borders of the desert. Immediately in front of the cantonments is the royal city of Ajmeer, now greatly fallen from its ancient grandeur; and the fort of Taraghur, which, although only five

miles distant in a direct line, is twelve by the windings of the road.—(*Bishop Heber, Public Journals, &c.*)

NussERABAD (*Nasirabad*). — A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsingh, of which it is the capital, situated on the west side of the river Brahmaputra, about six miles S.E. from Bygonbary, and seventy-one miles N. by E. from the city of Dacca; lat. 24° 26′ N., lon. 90° E. In 1819 it was the residence of the judge, collector, and other civil functionaries of the district.—(*Fullarton, D. Scott, &c.*)

NUTTAREAH. — A small town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 200 houses, and belonged to the raja of Seetamow; lat. 24° 7′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E.

NYARPET.—A small town, with a busy bazar, in the Carnatic province, and northern division of Arcot, about seventy miles north by west from Madras.

NYNARCOIL.—A town in the Carnatic province, containing several pagodas, situated in the Madura district, and subdivision of Marawa, about seventeen miles travelling distance N.W. from Kamnad.

NYTHANA.—A ruined native fortification in Northern Hindostan, twenty-four miles N.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 46′ N., lon. 79° 17′ E., 5,835 feet above the level of the sea.

O.

OBY ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, situated principally between the first and second degrees of south latitude and the 128th and 129th of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at sixty-five miles, by eleven miles the average breadth. On this island live many runaway slaves from Ternate, who cultivate cloves, which they sell to the Buggesses. It is claimed by the sultan of Batchian, who has a pearl-fishery on the coast. The Dutch formerly had a small fort on the west side of Oby.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

OCLASEER.—A town in the province of Gujerat, about five miles due south from Broach, on the opposite side of the Nerbudda river; lat. 21° 41′ N., lon. 73° 13′ E. In 1812 this town contained 7,911 inhabitants, and the pergunnah 21,056; total 29,969 persons.

ODEYPOOR (*Udayapura*). — A Rajpoot principality of the highest rank in the province of Ajmeer, of which it occupies the southern extremity, bordering on Gujerat. From Sarowy to Ajmeer its territories are protected by a chain of mountains, of which it commands several of the passes, and it is besides the country through which the commerce between Bombay, Cutch, and Gujerat, and the north-western parts of Rajpootana and Upper Hindostan must pass. It also connects many of the British military positions, and in the course of time the great commercial roads that formerly existed will be restored. A considerable portion of the Odeypoor principality had anciently the appellation of Mewar, or Meywar, and its chief in history is frequently styled Rana of Chitore, until that city was taken by Acber in 1567. It is difficult to define the real extent of the Odeypoor territories, owing to the incessant fluctuation of their limits, but they may be considered generally as comprehending the districts of Chitore and Meywar. Under this point of view they are bounded on the north by the Joudpoor territories; on the south by many native principalities in the provinces of Malwa and Gujerat; to the east are the territories of Kotah, Boondee, and Sindia; and on the west the district of Sarowy. In 1818 their total area might be estimated at 7,300 square miles of turbulent, ill-subdued territory. Cambay, by the road of Ahmedabad and Eder, once a great commercial route, is not more than 200 miles from Odeypoor, and an im-

portant road from Jumbosier runs through the eastern parts of Odeypoor, and passing by Baroda, Doongurpoor, and Sillumber, reaches Ajmeer in a distance of little more than three hundred miles, so that stores might be brought by this route from Bombay.

The surface of Odeypoor is rather hilly than mountainous, and possessing many streams and rivulets, independent of the solstitial rains. It produces, when properly cultivated, sugar, indigo, tobacco, wheat, rice, and barley; there are also mines of iron, and fuel is abundant. Thirty miles north of the city of Odeypoor sulphur is found, but of a quality inferior to that procured from Surat. The country is naturally strong, and the paths wild and intricate. In 1818 Cheetoo the Pindary baffled every effort to overtake him, when he escaped from Jawud in Rajpootana, by penetrating through a most difficult country to the south of the Mewar district, emerging near Dhar, to the south-west of Oojein, where there is a high range of mountains, whence issue the streams that afterwards form the Mahy river. The city of Odeypoor, which is situated within an amphitheatre of hills, is guarded in the approach by a deep and dangerous defile, which admits of only a single carriage passing at a time; yet so extensive is the circuit protected by this pass that it is said at one time to have comprehended between 400 and 500 villages. The cultivators are composed of Rajpoots, Jauts, Brahmins, Bheels, and Meanas, and nearly the whole are of the Brahminical persuasion. Their language is of Sanscrit origin, and the Lord's Prayer, when translated into it, was found to contain twenty-eight of the roots found either in the Bengalese or Hindostany specimens.

The rana of Odeypoor is of the Sesodya tribe, and is considered the most noble of the Rajpoot chiefs, but in temporal power has long been inferior to the rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor. He is also much revered by the Mahomedans, in consequence of a tradition that he is descended, in the female line, from Noushirvan the Just, who was sovereign of Persia at the birth of their prophet, and thus to have a common origin with the Seids, descended from Hossein the son of Ali. In 1807 the rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor contended for the honour of marrying the Rana of Odeypoor's daughter, and each supported his pretensions by the sword, thereby originating a war, the source of woes unnumbered to Rajpootana.

The nobility of the country are Rajpoots (Rajaputras, offspring of rajas) called Rhatores in the vulgar tongue. They are of the Sesodya tribe, which is esteemed the purest and most elevated in rank. The lands are mostly held by feudal tenure, but in the late distracted state of the Rana's dominions, the government dues were rarely paid except when levied by force, and the feudatories as rarely obeyed his summons to appear at court. Madhajee Sindia, by repeated invasions, threw the country into confusion, and dissolved the attachment of the inferior chiefs, so that the revenue of the Rana in 1805 had dwindled down to eight lacks of rupees, while the separated chieftains established petty states, such as Shahpoora, Sheroghur, and others, claiming independence. This, however, was not the worst the Rana was doomed to suffer, for under the Maharatta regimé his poverty became so great, that in 1818 no money whatever remained in the Rana's treasury, and the prince himself daily disbursed the small sums necessary for his dinner expenses.

Besides others of his lands occupied by desultory and predatory bands, the usurpations of recent years, the following had been assigned to the Sindia and Holcar families, *viz.*

In Jeswunt Row Bhow's hands..................Rs.	11,00,000
In Bapoo Sindia's ditto...	1,85,000
Ruttunghur, &c............	3,00,000
Total lands held by Sindia	15,85,000
Ditto held by Holcar...	14,75,000

To these might be added the respective shares of Bapoo Sindia and Delil Khan, each three lacks and a half annually, being the aggregate tribute of the collective body of feudal chiefs, settled long before at a meeting of Bapoo Sindia, Jumsheed Khan, and their officers, with the chiefs of Mewar and the Rana's functionaries, near the city of Odeypoor; which convention was intended for ever to suppress all predatory extortions from the province. The most sacred oaths were exchanged; Bapoo swore on the Ganges water, and Jumsheed on the Koran; but the ink was scarcely dry and a few instalments paid, when the old scenes recommenced with increased violence and barbarity, while Jumsheed bestowed the most opprobrious epithets on the Rana within the precincts of his own palace.

From this most horrible bondage the Rana was rescued by the British government, and a treaty concluded, by the conditions of which the latter was to receive one-fourth of the revenue realized for the first five years, and three-eighths ever after; the last proportion to be also received from any acquisitions recovered for the raja. After this his prospects brightened, and the chiefs and nobles, his former feudatories, daily repaired to offer him that obeisance they had so long withheld. But his poverty still continued, and the consequence was, that inferior officers were detached with bodies of troops to manage forts and pergunnahs, without any provision for their expenses, and it mattered little to the scanty population whether the rod were used by the Rana's own rapacious functionaries, or by the miscreants who had been expelled by the interference of the British armies. In January 1818 General Donkin describes the country as equalling, in richness of soil, any tract in Hindostan that he had ever seen, with the exception of some pergunnahs round Tonk Rampoora; but that the first cultivation that he had met with since he entered this desolated principality was immediately adjoining the fortress of Sanganeer, half a mile from which the land still continued an unproductive waste. Unfortunately the Rana's personal character was little adapted to the existing emergency, having (besides his habitual indolence) had his mental faculties injured by his long and hopeless depression, while no confidential advisers remained whose talents were adequate to the crisis. One of the most ruinous courses pursued by the Rana, was the lavish and indiscriminate grants of land bestowed for various purposes, through favour and faction.

The British government felt a natural anxiety to restore the prosperity, and regenerate, if practicable, the decayed institutions and misapplied resources of this ancient state; but any systematic interference with the Rana's internal management was equally precluded by the conditions of the treaty and considerations of general policy. Under these circumstances the appointment of a minister of capacity and integrity, disposed to act in concert with the British government for the good of his prince and country, would be the most advantageous arrangement: but even this was rendered hopeless by the absence of talent, experience, and influence, among those whose birth and station would have otherwise rendered them conspicuous. Notwithstanding these untoward circumstances some amelioration has taken place, and in 1818 the Rana's court, when visited by Capt. Tod, was found respectably attended by various chiefs, who had not been there for many years, and by others who had never been there at all. Hopes were also entertained that the whole would attend, and yield up the crown lands they had usurped, without any direct interference on the part of the British government, now that the barrier which had so long separated them from their legitimate sovereign, and retained both in thraldrom, had been removed.—(*Public MS. Documents, Tod, George Thomas, Broughton, Wilford, &c.*)

ODEYPOOR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, or Rajpootana, the capital of the preceding principality, situated 2,064 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 24° 35′ N., lon. 73° 44′ E. To the west of this city is a large lake, enclosed on all sides except where the town stands by wild and rugged hills, between which and the margin of the lake there are some villages, tombs, and gardens, with narrow slips of cultivation. A great bund or embankment, along which there are many trees and several buildings, defends the town from any overflow of the lake. The summits of the hills are composed of granite and quartz, and at their base schistus of various sorts is fouud.

The appearance of Odeypoor from a distance presents an imposing appearance, which a closer inspection does not justify. The palaces and garden residences on the lake are all of marble, and the sculptural decorations are not only highly finished, but display considerable taste. Images, toys, and a great variety of articles of marble, rock crystal, and steatite are sent from hence and from Jeypoor to the neighbouring provinces. Copper and lead are said to abound a little to the northward, but during the late anarchy all mining operations were suspended. In 1818 this place presented a miserable collection of ruined temples and deserted houses; but it has since, under the British protection, greatly recovered from its then state of extreme depression. The whole of the tribute of Marwar, during the first four years of its British connexion, were absorbed by its expenses; but in 1823 more than eight lacks of net revenue had been realized, of which 4,80,123 rupees were appropriated by the British government; three lacks as its share of tribute, and the remainder for the liquidation of debt. The British claims on the Odeypoor net revenue amount to three-eighths annually, but more than a quarter has not yet been taken. Within the Odeypoor dominions there are three high and privileged classes of Rajpoots: 1st. sixteen rajas; 2d. thirty-two thakoors, or feudal barons; 3d. the descendants of these two, settled on lands of their own; each maintaining bodies of armed followers.

The city of Chitore was for several centuries the capital of this principality, and much celebrated for its strength, riches, and antiquity, when taken by the Emperor Acber, in A.D. 1567. It is still a good-sized town, with many pagodas, and a meanly-built, but apparently busy bazar. The fortress rises immediately above the town, and extends for a considerable distance to the right and left of it. The rock where not naturally precipitous has been scarped by art all round the summit, to the height of from eighty to 120 feet. It is surrounded by a rude wall, with semicircular bastions, enclosing, according to native report, a circuit of twelve miles; but its real area is not in proportion to its circumference, its form being extremely irregular, and the ridge of the hill in many places narrow. The length, however, is not short of four miles, and the length of the wall, with all its windings, is probably not much exaggerated.

The approach is by a zig-zag road of very easy slope, but stony and in bad repair. Passing under six gateways, with traverses and rude outworks, the main entrance of the castle is reached. The whole face of the hill, except the precipice, is covered with trees and brushwood, and the ascent about a mile. In advance of the castle gate is an outwork or barbican, with a colonnade; internally, of octagonal pillars and carved imposts, supporting a flat terrace, and with a hall in the interior. The gateway itself is very lofty and striking, with a good deal of carving in the genuine style of ancient Hindoo architecture, without any Mahomedan intermixture, something approaching to the Egyptian.

On entering the gateway a small street leads to an ancient temple, and afterwards through many interesting buildings and temples, some

of which are extremely solemn and beautiful. There are also two or three little palaces, chiefly remarkable for the profusion of carving bestowed on rooms of very minute dimensions, and arranged with no more regard to convenience than a common prison. Just above the crest of the hall stands the largest temple in the fort, dedicated to the destroying power, with the trident of Siva in front, and lighted within by some lamps. In its furthest dark recess is a frightful figure of the blood-stained goddess Cali, with her lion, her many hands full of weapons, and her chaplet of skulls. A tiger's skin is stretched before her, and the pavement is stained with the blood of sacrifices; adjacent sit the Brahmins and officiating priests.

In this and all the other temples the excellence of the masonry is remarkable, as also the judicial construction of the domes that cover them, as well as the solemn effect produced by their style of architecture, originating possibly in the low massive proportions of their pillars, in the strong shadows thrown by their projecting cornices and unpierced domes, in the long flight of steps leading to them, which give consequence to a structure of very moderate dimensions, and in the character of their ornaments, which consist either of mythological bas-reliefs, or in endless repetition and continuity of a few very simple forms, so as to give an idea of a sort of infinity. The general construction of all these buildings is the same. A small court-yard, a portico, a square open building, supported by pillars and surmounted by a dome, and behind this a close square shrine, surmounted by an ornamented pyramid. There is only one building in the Mahomedan style, said to be the work of Azim Ushaun, the son of Aurungzebe, who was fortunate enough to capture Chitore, and consequently named it Futteh Mahal; but it is singular enough that such a building should have been allowed to stand when the Hindoos recovered the place. Although uninhabited and falling into decay, it is still tolerably entire.

There are many pools, cisterns, and wells, in different parts of this extraordinary hill, amounting, it is said, to eighty-four, of which, however, in the dry season, only twelve have water. One of these is a large irregular pool cut in the solid rock, and fed by a beautiful spring, with a little temple over it, is a most picturesque spot. It has high rocks on three sides, covered with trees and temples; on the fourth side are some old buildings, also of a religious character, erected on the edge of the precipice that surrounds the castle. A long flight of rock-hewn steps leads down to the water, and the whole place breathes coolness, seclusion, and solemnity. Below the edge of the precipice, and with their foliage just rising above it, grow two or three large plantains of a very large size, which are considered great curiosities, as they produce excellent fruit every year, although there be scarcely any earth on the rock where they are rooted. They probably, however, derive moisture from the water flowing through the rampart, which assists to dam the pool.

The most extraordinary buildings in Chitore are two minarets, or tower temples, dedicated to Siva. The smallest is now ruinous; but the largest, which resembles it in form, is a square tower nine stories high, of white marble, most elaborately carved, surmounted by a cupola, and the two highest stories projecting like balconies beyond those beneath, so that it stands on its smaller end. There is a steep and narrow staircase of marble within, conducting to seven small and two large apartments, all richly and delicately carved with mythological figures, of which the most conspicuous and most frequently repeated are, Siva embracing Parvati, and Siva in the character of the destroyer, with a monstrous cobra di capello in each hand. As far as can be guessed by the eye, this building is about 115 feet high, and

the view from the top of it most extensive.

There are few cannon here (1824), and the garrison is very insignificant; but it might be made impregnable, its situation being such that to batter it would be of little use; and from its great extent, shells would give the defenders but little annoyance. On the other hand, to man its walls would require an army. A considerable population resides within the fort, but they are mostly Brahmins and market people.

The journey from Gungrar to Chitore, about twelve miles distance, is through a wild but interesting road, winding through woods at the base of some fine rocky hills; and the situation of Chitore is conspicuous from a considerable distance, owing to the height of the rock on which the fortress stands. From Chitore to Sawa, on the other side, ten miles distance, is through a country almost covered with jungle, not close and matted with long grass, but open, of scattered trees and bushes, abounding with deer and hogs, but not many tigers, those last preferring long grass in the neighbourhood of water, which article is very scarce here.

Chitore was first conquered by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1303, during the reign of Allah ud Deen, emphatically named the scourge of the Hindoos, at Delhi. It was subsequently taken by Acber, in 1567; and again in 1680 subdued and plundered by Azim Ushaun, the son of Aurungzebe; permanent possession, therefore, does not appear to have been retained by the Patan or Mogul dynasties. In 1790 it was taken by Madhajee Sindia from Bheem Singh, the rebellious subject of the rana of Odeypoor, to whom it was restored, conformably to a previous agreement, and under whose dominion it still remains. It stands in lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 74° 45′ E.—(*Bishop Heber, Sir John Malcolm, Jas. Fraser, Major Rennell, &c.*)

Offak.—A harbour thus named in the island of Wagecoo, where there is a stream of fresh water, and good anchorage.

Ogurapoora (*Agurapura*).—A town in the province of Orissa, seventy-seven miles N.N.W. from Cuttack; lat. 21° 21′ N., lon. 85° 24′ E.

Okamundel (*Ukamandala*).—In modern times the term Okamundel is principally applied to the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula, separated from the main land of Hallaur and Burudda by a runn or swamp, formed by the sea making a breach from the north-western shore, near Pindtaruk, and extending in a S.E. direction again connects itself with the sea at Muddee, about fourteen miles distant from Pindtaruk. The breadth of this channel gradually decreases; at Muddee it is not more than a mile, and is separated from the ocean by a low bank fifty yards wide, which is wearing away. Twelve miles north from Positra this runn or swamp is five and a half miles broad, the bottom of firm sand with very little mud. The highest spring-tides flood it to the depth of sixteen or eighteen inches, at other times it is dry or merely moist, and may be marched across with ease. The Oka shore is much more abrupt and uneven than the other, and is thickly covered with milk-bush, baubool, and other wild and astringent shrubs. After ascending the coast the descent into the country is gradual, the general level of the country being much lower than the beach of the Runn. The word oka signifies every thing bad or difficult, in which sense it is applied to this wild and uncouth district.

In 1809 Okamundel contained five forts and twenty-seven villages. The first are Bate, Positra, Bhurwalla, Dwaraca, and Dhenjee. The soil is generally of a light red colour, and of no great depth, jowaree and bajeree being the only crops it is capable of yielding. Camels of an inferior sort are bred here, the sea-beach and extensive sandy slips (called Wudh), covered with shrubs, being suited to the rearing of this animal, which

requires little care, and is suffered to roam wild among the jungles, where tigers have never been found, although leopards have occasionally been seen. The rock of Oka is much impregnated with iron, but is little fused, beyond what the blacksmiths require for building and repairing boats. Salt is manufactured in small quantities, and the shores abound with oysters and other shell-fish. The population consists mostly of Wagheres, a Hindoo race of men originally from Cutch, but who appear to possess as much of Mahomedan as of Hindoo principles, and their appearance and manners are barbarous in the extreme. The Rajpoot families in general live in villages distinct from the Wagheres, and pay a consideration for their lands and crops, which the others do not, their maxim being to plough and eat.

The piracies for which Oka has been celebrated are of very ancient date, and the natives continue prone to this mode of life, to which they are stimulated by the peculiar advantages the numerous creeks, bays, channels, and inlets of the coast afford them, besides their reliance on the power of their deity at Dwaraca, whose priests and attendants are the strongest instigators to depredation, and the ultimate receivers of the stolen goods. Before embarking it was formerly a practice with these pirates to promise a larger share to the god than he could justly claim, provided he would ensure success and safety to their trip. Many vessels were fitted out in the name of Runchor (the deity), as sole owner, and actually belonged to the temple, which received whatever plunder they brought back.

The ancient history, as narrated in the sacred writings of the Hindoos, is so mingled with fabulous tradition that it is impossible to separate truth from romance. These authorities, such as they are, derive its name from a celebrated demon of the name of Oka, who occupied this tract of maritime coast, until he was slain by Krishna. Such historical fragments as are now extant commence about A.D. 1054, at which era Oka was partitioned between the Herole and Chowara Rajpoots, who were afterwards expelled by Rhatore Rajpoots from Marwar. The more modern history of Okamundel commences about the end of the twelfth century, since which date many chiefs have reigned, but to enumerate them would only expose a barren list of names all ending with the syllable jee. After the interference of the British government in 1809 for the suppression of piracy, the improvement of Okamundel was very tardy, both from the barrenness of the soil, and the difficulty of withdrawing men from habits that had existed for centuries, and which in this instance were also interwoven with religious prejudices. The inveteracy of their piratical habits proved so insurmountable that the complete subjugation of Okamundel appeared to be the only remedy, and this was effected by a detachment under Colonel East, in 1816.

The poverty of Bate and Okamundel would have rendered them unprofitable acquisitions to the British government, but the sanctity of the territory rendered it grateful to the Guicowar, who was willing to accept it at the hazard of a pecuniary sacrifice. In 1816 the highest revenue of Okamundel was estimated at 40,000 rupees, three-fourths of which was realized by the pilgrim-tax, which under the British government would have undergone a reduction, as had happened at Juggernauth; all extra profits had been destroyed by the suppression of piracy. After much negociation and hesitation on the part of Futteh Singh Guicowar, the district of Okamundel, with its holy places of Bate and Dwaraca, was finally transferred to the Baroda sovereign in 1817.—(*Macmurdo, Carnac, Public MS. Documents, East, &c.*)

OKIRAH.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, 150

miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 38′ N., lon. 87° 15′ E.

OLPAR (*Ulupara*). — A town in the province of Gujerat, situated in a rich country, with few trees, seven miles north from Surat; lat. 21° 21′ N., lon. 73° 3′ E. With the surrounding valuable pergunnah it was finally acquired by conquest from the Vinchoor Cur, one of the Peshwa's chief functionaries, in 1817, but it had previously, on account of its vicinity to Surat, been under the jurisdiction of the magistrate of that city.

OMBAY ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, the inhabitants of which are described as fierce and treacherous, and in 1820 had the reputation of being cannibals, with the dark colour and frizzled hair of the Papuas. In other circumstances Ombay is said entirely to resemble the island of Sabrao, to which reference may be had.

OMERKUNTUC (*Amara Cantaca*).—A celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage in the province of Gundwana, twenty-eight miles N.N.W. from Ruttenpoor; lat. 22° 55′ N., lon. 82° 7′ E., 2,463 feet above the level of the sea. The country around Omerkuntuc is very wild, and thinly inhabited, and rarely frequented except by Hindoo pilgrims, who go to visit the sources of the Sone and Nerbudda rivers at this place, the usual road to which is by Ruttenpoor. No European traveller (as far as was known in 1828) has yet visited it, but according to native authorities, these rivers derive their origin from the water that is collected in and issues from the cavities of the mountains which form the elevated table-land of Omerkuntuc. Of this territory the Nagpoor raja formerly claimed a part, the raja of Sohagepoor another part, and the wild Gonds a third, but the whole is comprehended within the British dominions, and it is to be hoped will not much longer remain unexplored. —(*Captain J. B. Blunt, Mr. Jenkins, &c.*)

OMERSEER.—A village in the province of Cutch, situated about eleven miles south from Luckput Bunder; lat. 23° 43′ N.

OMETA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-six miles east from Cambay; lat. 22° 24′ N. lon. 73° 13′ E.

OMRAH.—A small fortified town in the province of Agra, twenty-six miles E. from Ditteah, but belonging to Jaloun; lat. 25° 40′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E.

OMUTWARA.—A small district in the province of Malwa, bounded on the west by the Cali Sinde river, and on the east by the Parbutty. The designation of this tract is traced from a class of inferior Rajpoots, originally from Mewar, who while the Mogul empire flourished were proprietors of large herds of camels, from which the name Omut is derived. In process of time their two leading chiefs Mohun and Purseram acquired possession of 1,500 villages, which they named collectively Omutwara, and having divided them into two equal portions, they ruled them under the titles of rawul and dewan, still retaining a strong predilection towards their ancient plundering habits. On the Maharatta conquest of Malwa they were in their turn compelled to yield to more powerful robbers, and are now tributary, the first to Sindia, and the last to the young representative of the Holcar family.

ONAIL.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighteen miles N.N.W. from Oojein; lat. 23° 21′ N., lon. 75° 35′ E.

ONGOLOGUR (*Angula-ghar*).—A town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, fifty-nine miles W. from the town of Cuttack; lat. 20° 32′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E. This is the capital of a large zemindary, bounded on the north by the Brahminy river; on the east by the hereditary state of Talchere; and in extreme dimensions is 125 miles from north to south, by ten from east to west. This tract produces rice and most of the Indian

grains; also oil, cotton, wax, honey, iron, and timber. In 1814 the proprietor collected annually about 10,000 rupees from a tax levied at Pergurparah ghaut, on all merchandize passing that road. The yearly tribute paid by the zemindar was then only 1,550 rupees; his estimated profit 25,000 rupees. Much of the country is still in a state of nature, and covered with jungle. In 1814 the succession was disputed by two claimants, Loknauth Singh and Prithee Singh, both strongly suspected of illegitimacy. After a tedious investigation the Bengal government decided that neither had any just title, the right owner being Somnauth Singh, who was installed accordingly by the British functionaries. —(*Richardson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Ongole (*Angula*).—A town and subdivision of the Northern Carnatic, 153 miles north from Madras; lat. 15° 13′ N., lon. 79° 56′ E. This is a mean and irregularly built town, composed entirely of red earth huts with thatched roofs. The fort is a detached work, with round bastions, the rampart faced with uncemented stones, and protected on three sides by a wet ditch and on the fourth by a lake of great beauty, with wooded banks, and groups of small hills that approach the margin. A party of invalids under a European commandant compose the garrison, and a convenient bungalow is provided for the use of travellers.

Ongole was formerly dependent on the Cuddapah principality, but was afterwards incorporated with the Carnatic below the ghauts, and subject to the nabob of Arcot, from whom, in 1801, it was received by the British government. In point of fertility Ongole is inferior to Tanjore and several other districts; but it is remarkably rich in copper ore, and yields abundance of excellent salt along the sea-coast. The Gondegama which bounds it to the north, and the Mussy, are the chief streams. The principal towns besides Ongole are Roopoor, Sydanpooram, and Accampettah.—(*Fullarton, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Onore (*Hanavara*).—A sea-port town in the province of Canara, situated in lat. 14° 16′ N., lon. 75° 32′ E. This was formerly a place of great commerce, where Hyder had established a dock-yard for building ships of war, but it was totally demolished by Tippoo after it was recovered by the treaty of Mangalore. Part of the town has been since rebuilt, and it now possesses a custom-house. The Portuguese erected a fort here so early as A.D. 1505. The lake of Onore is of great extent, and, like that at Cundapoor, contains many islands, some of which are cultivated. It reaches nearly to the ghauts, and in the dry season is almost salt; but it receives many small fresh-water streams, which during the rainy monsoon become torrents, and render the whole fresh. It abounds with fish, which when salted form a considerable article of commerce with the interior.—(*F. Buchanan, Bruce, &c.*)

Onrust Isle.—A small islet in the Eastern seas, about a quarter of a mile in circumference, and about two and a half miles distant from Batavia. The immense naval arsenal and warehouses which the Dutch had erected here were all destroyed by the squadron under Sir Edward Pellew during the revolutionary war.

Ooch.—A town in the province of Mooltan, where, according to Mr. Elphinstone, the Indus receives the Punjnud, a river formed by the union of the Punjab waters, which, although of a large volume, is much inferior in size to the Indus above the junction; there is reason, however, to believe that during the dry season the confluence takes place much lower down. When the floods are at their height the whole intervening space between Ooch and the main channel of the Indus is one vast sheet of water.

The town of Ooch is situated within the Bahawulpoor principality, about seventy-five miles S. by W.

from the city of Mooltan; lat. 29° 11′ N., lon. 70° 50′ E. It has probably at some remote period been of greater importance, as its name designates a peculiar language called the Ooch or Wuch, which, when examined by the missionaries, was found to contain (radically) twenty-six of the thirty-two words that compose the Lord's Prayer in Bengalese and Hindostany.—(*Elphinstone, Missionaries, &c.*)

Oochinadroog (*Ujayini durga*).—A strong hill-fort in the Balaghaut ceded districts, subdivision of Harponelly; lat. 14° 32′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E. This fortress is situated about twelve miles to the eastward of Hunghur, and has the appearance of great strength, being of considerable height, unconnected and abrupt, especially to the northward and westward, where it is almost perpendicular.—(*Moore, &c.*)

Oodeepoor (*Udaya Pura*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, where it is nearly surrounded by the windings of the Oresung river; lat. 22° 12′ N., lon. 74° 7′ E. It is built on a rising ground, and in 1820 contained about 1,000 houses. The general road from Malwa passes through this place, which at the above date belonged to a petty raja of the same tribe with Zalim Singh of Kotah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Oodeypoor (*Udaya Pura*).—A town in the province of Malwa, formerly of considerable consequence, as is indicated by its extensive ruins; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 78° 9′ E. With the territory attached it belongs to Sindia, and in 1820 yielded a revenue of 70,000 rupees per annum.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Oodunpoor.—A moderate sized town in the province of Delhi, about thirty miles N.E. from Furruckabad, and about twelve from Shahjehanpoor. The frontier here between the Oude and British dominions is only an imaginary line.

Oojein (*Ujjayini*).—A district in the province of Malwa, situated towards the south-western extremity, and containing the capitals of the Sindia and Holcar families. The soil in the vicinity of Oojein and over the greater part of the Malwa province is a black vegetable mould, which in the rainy season becomes so soft that travelling is hardly practicable. When dry it cracks in all directions, and the fissures are so wide and deep by the road side as to make a journey dangerous. The quantity of rain that falls in ordinary seasons is so considerable, and the ground so retentive of moisture, that wells are little used for watering the fields; but this makes the sufferings of the inhabitants more severe if the periodical rains fail, there being no wells to supply the deficiency. It is singular that the vine in this tract produces a second crop of grapes in the rainy season, but they are acidulous and of an inferior quality. The other fruits are the mangoe, guava, plantain, melon, and several varieties of the orange and lime trees. In the villages near the city of Oojein the houses are entirely built of mud, the roofs, walls, and floors being all of that composition, which the inhabitants assert resists the heaviest rains. In 1820 the portion of this district belonging to Sindia and attached to the city of Oojein yielded a revenue of near 2,80,000 rupees, nearly half of which was granted in assignments. — (*Dr. Wm. Hunter, Malcolm, &c.*)

Oojein (*Ujjayini*).—A town of great celebrity in the Malwa province, and until the recent transfer to Gualior, the modern capital of the Sindia Maharattas, 1,698 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 23° 11′ N., lon. 75° 35′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Oojein is a large city on the banks of the Sopra, and held in high veneration by the Hindoos. It is astonishing that sometimes this river flows with milk."

The city of Oojein, called in Sanscrit Ujjayini and Avanti, boasts a

most remote antiquity. A chapter in the Hindoo mythological poems named the Puranas is devoted to the description of it, and it is mentioned in the Periplus of the Erythrean Sea, as well as by Ptolemy, under the name of Ozene. It is also considered by Hindoo geographers as the first meridian, and due north of Lanca, an imaginary place on the equator, somewhat S.W. of Ceylon, without latitude or longitude. The modern town is situated about a mile to the south of the ancient, which is said to have been overwhelmed by a convulsion of nature about the time of raja Vicramaditya, when it was the seat of arts, learning, and empire; but Mr. Fullarton is of opinion that no appearance, either in the vicinity or place itself, indicates that any such convulsion ever took place. In fact, the site of old Oojein presents the same irregular surface, the same undulating heaps of brick-coloured rubbish, intersected by ravines, which mark the sites of the other decayed towns throughout Hindostan. The depth also at which pillars and other fragments of masonry have been occasionally found, may be sufficiently accounted for, from the accumulation of soil with which the perishable habitations of an Indian town are continually enveloping those that have passed away, without having recourse to the Brahminical fable of a shower of cold earth, or to any supernatural convulsion. What has been called Raja Bhirtery's cave is no cave at all, but part of an ancient building of masonry, buried in part under the ruins of the old city, and so far become subterranean, and at present the only appearance that deserves the name.

Connected with it, and probably part of the original edifice, is a sort of elevated court or portico, with several ancient columns still erect. In the bank adjoining this to the northward there are two cleared apertures or doorways. That nearest the river conducts to a suite of four low and narrow stone chambers, supported by massy pillars curiously carved, the floors nearly on a level with the present surface of the soil; and under these is another suite of small low apartments, to which the descent is through an apperture in the pavement, and which are now strictly subterranean. It is in this part of the building that the fabulous passage leading to Benares and Hurdwar is pointed out. The other aperture leads to a sort of gallery about three feet below the present level of the ground, its roof supported on a long range of pillars, curiously embellished with figures in relievo.

The modern town of Oojein is of an oblong shape, was formerly about six miles in circumference, and the interior crowded with buildings and population; but the latter have been gradually diminishing, many having been attracted to the neighbouring city of Indore, where Holcar has at length fixed his hitherto migratory court. Some of the houses in the principal streets exceed two stories in height; that inhabited by the widow of Madhajee Sindia in 1820 was of four stories, and very imposing in its appearance. The wooden fronts of many of the principal buildings are elaborately carved, the tile roofs sloped after the fashion of Europe, and the main street paved with a granite causeway. The most remarkable buildings are the pagodas in the vicinity of the palace (itself a poor edifice), and bordering on a fine sheet of water; more especially the temple of Maha Cali, with its portico of many pillars; and those of Krishna and Rama at Unkpat. The most striking scene, however, at Oojein is the view from the Sipra of a noble range of ghauts that line its banks, with the gardens containing the cheteries of the Sindia family, intermingled with cupola pavilions, old trees, Hindoo temples, and tombs of Mahomedan saints. Some of the cheteries are really fine monumental structures. In a temple dedicated to Mahadeva, adjoining the mausoleum of one of Madhajee Sindia's wives, there is a large white marble statue of Siva's bull Nundi, with its mouth resting on

a basket of fruit supported on a lingam, and held up by two figures in the habit of fakeers, which for this country is certainly an extraordinary piece of sculpture. Sindia's palace is a pile of building no way remarkable, but in its vicinity are the remains of an ancient gateway, called the Chowbees Derwazeh (or twenty-four doors), reputed to be nearly coeval with the time of Vicramaditya, yet differing little in its style from similar buildings of the present day. The astronomical observatory built here by raja Jeysingh stands without the city on the south-west, and is a much inferior structure to his other establishment in Upper Hindostan, and has long been consigned to neglect and decay.

Until the recent transfer of the seat of government to Gualior, Oojein was reckoned the capital of Sindia's dominions, and is still the residence of some of the most distinguished individuals of that prince's family; but notwithstanding its scientific celebrity it does not appear to have ever been a place of Hindoo pilgrimage. Mahomedans form a considerable portion of the population, this being the head-quarters of the Borahs (Mussulman pedlars), amounting to 1,200 families, distributed in four sections, separated by strong gates from the rest of the city. They have a moullah, or high priest, deputed by their chief pontiff, who resides at Surat. Oojein, like Indore, has always been noted for a profusion of excellent fruit, especially grapes of which they have two gatherings per annum from the same vine, but one is acidulous and of an inferior quality. In A.D. 1819 there were two coco-nut trees growing in Rana Khan's garden which were justly reckoned great curiosities, and preserved with much care, it being a tree scarcely ever seen at such a distance from sea-air and the ocean.

Ptolemy places Oojein about 255 geographical miles from the mouth of the river Mahy, but the real distance is not more than 200 miles. Rajas of this city are mentioned by Ferishta so early as A.D. 1008, and it was first conquered by the Mahomedans about 1230. The celebrated raja Jeysingh held the city and territory of Oojein of the emperor Mahomed Shah; but it soon afterwards fell under the power of the Maharattas, and has been possessed for four generations by the Sindia family. Jyapa Sindia, the first of the race on record, was a servant to Bajerow the first Peshwa, who delegated him to several military commands. He was followed by his son Junkojee, who was murdered after the battle of Paniput; and his uncle Ranojee succeeded to his territories. This chief left two sons, Kedarjee the father of Anund Row, the father of Dowlet Row Sindia; and Madhajee Sindia, who supplanted his eldest brother and seized the throne. This last chief early in life lost a leg at the battle of Paniput, so fatal to the Maharattas: but notwithstanding his mutilation, he distinguished himself as an active indefatigable commander, and during his life-time completely controlled the Maharatta empire. By introducing European dicipline among his troops he subdued a considerable proportion of Hindostan Proper, compelled the Rajpoot chiefs to pay tribute, obtained possession of Delhi and the Mogul's person, and brought his dominions into contact with those of the British nation under the Bengal presidency. Having no issue but daughters, he adopted his nephew Dowlet Row, who on his uncle's decease, in 1794, succeeded to his hereditary possessions and conquests, in preference to the son of Madhajee's own daughter, Balla Bhye; which youth was subsequently adopted by Dowlet Row, but died soon after.

The whole course of this chieftain's operations, from the moment he ascended the throne, manifested a systematic design of establishing an ascendancy in the Maharatta state on the ruins of the Peshwa's authority. For some succeeding years Dowlet Row continued to augment his dominions by unceasing encroachments on his neighbours, until 1803, when

he ventured to try his strength with the British, having previously entered on a hostile confederacy with the Nagpoor raja and Jeswunt Row Holcar. A short and vigorous war of only four months' duration ensued, in the course of which his armies experienced such signal defeats from Generals Lake and Wellesley as threatened the utter extinction of his sovereignty. Reduced to this extremity, he agreed to a peace, by the conditions of which he relinquished nearly all his distant possessions, amounting to more than one-half of his dominions, including Delhi and the Mogul's person, and sunk down to a condition of very secondary importance. During this campaign the city of Oojein was occupied by the Bombay army, but was restored on the re-establishment of peace. While the above negociations were going on a curious instance of Maharatta character was exhibited, in the perverted spirit of reluctant sincerity with which Sindia's ministers, after the conclusion of the war, not only confessed the existence of the hostile confederacy before so repeatedly and strenuously denied, but actually called upon British justice and good faith to punish the treachery of Holcar for not having fulfilled the stipularions of the said offensive alliance against themselves.

Notwithstanding the heavy losses sustained during the course of the preceding war, Sindia's possessions still remained considerable until 1811, when the death of Jeswunt Row Holcar, and the never-ending dissensions of the Rajpoot states, once more raised him to comparative importance. But new enemies, partly of his own creation, arose in the very heart of his dominions. These were the Pindaries, whom in the beginning he fostered, as the system placed at his disposal a large body of horse, but they soon outgrew his means of control; and latterly, if he had had the inclination, he certainly had not the power to suppress them. In addition to this his country was impoverished by mismanagement, and his government in such confusion that it scarcely deserved the name, while his authority was almost confined within the walls of Gualior, where he was in a manner besieged by his own turbulent and unpaid army. His external politics were not less culpable than his internal administration, for by inviting the Pindaries to invade the British dominions, and by promoting the profligate intrigues of the Peshwa for the subversion of the British supremacy, he had dissolved the treaty of 1805. His intention of making common cause with the first was clearly established by the Pindary chiefs themselves; and with respect to the last the Marquis of Hastings caused to be delivered to him in open court his own letters, signed with his own hand and sealed with his own private seal, evincing the most hostile machinations against the British government. Nothing more was said on the delivery of these letters, except that the Governor-general had no desire to peruse them, and that his highness would perceive the seals were unbroken.

After so complete a detection a new and more binding treaty became necessary, which was accordingly arranged in 1817, and the two fortresses of Hindia and Aseerghur required as pledges for its performance during the war. Being freed from the restraints of 1805 the British government became now at liberty to form engagements with the Rajpoot states, from which it had been hitherto restricted, all Sindia's just and lawful tributes being guaranteed to him. Notwithstanding the moderation of this treaty, Sindia evaded the signing of it until the 5th of November 1817, when two powerful British armies were on his frontier, and the day he did affix his signature happened to be (although then unknown to him) the very one on which the Peshwa attacked Mr Elphinstone and the British residency at Poona. Had he delayed twenty-four hours longer, much severer terms would have been

imposed on him. Even after its conclusion, notwithstanding the recent alliance, the British armies were compelled to maintain the same attitude as if in daily expectations of being attacked. This suspicious line of policy continued until the battle of Maheidpoor, when the impression made by that sudden annihilation of Holcar's power became apparent in the altered conduct of the Gualior cabinet, which at once gave in, and from that epoch resigned itself to every arrangement required or suggested by the Governor-general.

The dominions at present possessed by Dowlet Row Sindia are still considerable, but they are so much intermixed with those of petty native chiefs that it is difficult to discriminate them. In 1818 some exchanges of territory and other arrangements took place, in which he transferred to the British government the fortress of Ajmeer, the Boondee tribute and all other claims on that state, and the fort and district of Islamnagur. His strongest fortresses in 1820 were Gualior, Powahghur, Narwar, Chanderee, Raghooghur, Ratghur, Bujrunghur, Sheopoor, Esaughur, and Gohud. His army then consisted of 13,000 regulars and 9,000 horse, besides artillery and irregular corps. His income was under ninety-five lacks of rupees per annum, for his possessions in Central Hindostan did not yield him more than eighty lacks of rupees, and he derived little from his possessions in Candeish and the Deccan. From 1809 to 1827 the control of Sindia's affairs were mostly in the hands of a banker named Gocul Paruk (who died in the year last mentioned), necessary for his financial abilities; but his administration must in other respects have merited praise, as in 1820 the acting resident at Gualior reported that in the whole of Sindia's possessions in Malwa there was not one predatory chief to be found, while highway robberies were by no means frequent; a change next to miraculous. In 1819 Sindia had not any legitimate male descendants, but had two daughters, married into families hostile to each other. On the 21st March 1827 Dowlet Row Sindia died, aged forty-seven, when the sovereignty was assumed by his widow, Baiza Bhye, who soon afterwards adopted Mookht Row, the son of a distant kinsman of her late husband's, then eleven years of age, who mounted the throne on the 18th June 1827, under the title of Maha Raja Junkojee Sindia, having previously married the widow's youngest daughter. He was placed on the throne by the resident, and shortly afterwards lent the British government fifty lacks of rupees.

Travelling distance from Calcutta to Oojein by Mundlah, 997 miles; from Bombay by Boorhanpoor, 500; from Delhi, 440; from Hyderabad, 534; from Nagpoor, 340; and from Poona, 442 miles.—(*Fullarton, Hunter, Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Malcolm, Close, Public MS. Documents, Rennell, Ferishta, Wilford, &c.*)

OON.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the borders of the Kakreze, about fifteen miles north from Rahdunpoor. In 1809 this was an open town, with one long bazar street, the houses of which were tolerably well constructed, several with upper stories. It then contained about 2,000 houses, 800 of which were inhabited by Coolies.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

OONAEE.—A small village belonging to the Guicowar in the province of Gujerat, situated about fifty miles S.E. from Surat. At this place there is a hot well, which, like other extraordinary phenomena of nature, is held sacred by the Hindoos, and resorted to by pilgrims of that faith, who are supplied by the officiating priest with the miraculous history of its original formation by Rama Chandra.—(*Drummond, &c.*

OONCHODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirty-three miles travelling distance from Dewass, to which state it belongs; lat. 22° 48′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E. In 1820 it contained 300 houses. The Vindhya

range of mountains are within four miles distance of this town.

Oonjara.—A large town in the province of Ajmeer, eight miles S.W. from Rampoora; lat 25° 51′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. It is surrounded by a wall, partly of mud and partly of stone. The raja has a handsome house within a stone enclosure, protected by a ditch. Bheem Singh, the reigning Row in 1819, was a feudatory of Jeypoor, and sprung from that family, but has long acted as an independent prince. Besides Ooniara, he possesses the strong fortress of Nuggur, and a considerable tract of country.

Oonterala.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Garrote, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.

Oorcha (*Arijaya*).—An ancient town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the left bank of the Betwa, about eight miles south from Jhansi; lat. 25°26′ N., lon. 78° 38′ E. In remote times this was a city of great note, the raja of Oorcha being then the head of the Bondelah tribes, from whom the other inferior chiefs received the teeka, or token of investiture. Subsequently the seat of government was removed from Oorcha to Tehree, the dependencies of which now compose the whole possessions of the Bondelah chief; but the principalities of Jhansi, Ditteah, and Simpthir, have all emanated from this the parent state. In 1821 an affray took place near Tehree, in the principality of Oorcha, between the subjects of the latter state and a battalion of Dowlet Row Sindia's, in which the latter was totally defeated, but for which exploit the British government was obliged to reprimand both the raja and his son, no internal fighting being permitted. —(*Hunter, Franklin, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Oorun.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles S.E. from Banda; lat. 25° 22′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E.

Ooscotta.—A small town in the Mysore province, sixteen miles N.E. from Bangalore; lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 77°51′ E. This is a neat little town, separated by a valley from a hill-fort. Here, as in other parts of Mysore, the small river has been converted into a tank, by a lofty mound carried across the valley.

Oosoor.—A town in the Mysore province, twenty-five miles S.S.E. from Bangalore; lat. 12° 42′ N., lon. 77° 52′ E.

Ossoree (*Asuri, a female demon*). —A large village in Mysore, thirty-five miles travelling distance W.N.W. from Nundydroog. It has a noble reservoir in its vicinity, connected with the town by an avenue of trees. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ootradroog (*uttara durga, the northern fort*).—A town in the Mysore province, forty-eight miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon., 77° 12′ E. The rock of Ootradroog forms the northern termination of a chain of hills that intersect the table-land of Mysore. It is not very high, yet on the side next the pettah presents five distinct lines of fortifications rising one above the other. The walls of the pettah enclose a tolerable large and well-peopled village, situated on a lower eminence distinct from the Droog.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ootrivaloor (*Uttaravelur*).—A town in the Carnatic province, fifty-two miles S.E. from Madras; lat. 12° 35′ N., lon. 79° 46′ E.

Orai.—A small town in the province of Agra, fourteen miles S.E. from Jaloun; lat. 25° 29′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E.

Oreeno.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles N.N.E. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 53′ N., lon. 78° 37′ E.

ORISSA.

(*Ordesa*).

A large province in the Deccan, extending from the eighteenth to the

twenty-third degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Bengal, on the south by the Godavery river; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the province of Gundwana. Ordesa or Oresa, the peculiar country of the Or or Odra tribe, had originally less extended limits, but in the progress of migration and conquest the Ooria nation carried their name and language over a vast space of territory, both on the sea-shore and among the hills, including besides Orissa Proper a portion of Bengal and Telingana.

According to the institutes of Acber, Orissa in its greatest dimensions, in A.D. 1582, was divided into five districts, *viz.* 1st. Jellasir, comprehending Midnapoor and the British possessions lying north and east of the river Subunreeka; 2d. Buddruck; 3d. Cuttack; 4th. Culling (Calinga) or Cicacole; 5th. Rajamundry. At present the principal modern territorial subdivisions, commencing from the north, are the following (but besides the province, it includes many other petty states and large zemindaries):—1st. Singbhoom; 2d. Kunjeur; 3d. Mohurbunge; 4th Balasore; 5th. Cuttack; 6th. Khoordah. The modern extent of the Orissa province may be roughly estimated at 400 miles in length, by about seventy the average breadth; but Orissa Proper has much more limited dimensions, and may be considered wholly comprehended in the British district of Cuttack, to which, and the other heads respectively, the reader is referred for authentic topographical information.

The interior of this province remote from the sea remains in a very savage state, being composed of rugged hills, uninhabited jungles, and deep water-courses, surrounded by pathless deserts, forests, or vallies, and pervaded by a pestilential atmosphere. It forms a national barrier to the maritime districts, being only traversed during the driest season by the Lumballies or inland traders. With such a barrier to the west, and the ocean to the east, the defence of Orissa does not appear difficult; the jealousies, however, of a people subdivided into petty and hostile communities, the absence of civilization, added to the habitual indolence and apathy of the natives, have for many years rendered it an easy prey to invaders, and they have repeatedly passed from yoke to yoke without a struggle.

With regard to the population, the four great castes are the same here in name and function as in the other portions of Hindostan; but the ordinary trades and professions are subdivided into thirty-six classes or pathacks, all either Sudras or an impure race named Sankara Verma. The proper genuine Khetries are supposed to be extinct, those who represent them under the titles of Dhir Dhal, Towang, Mal, Bhanj, Ray, Rawut, and Khandait, being held by the learned to be Sudras. The only pure Vaisyas are two classes of Beniyas, who practice the trades of druggists and money-changers. The wild tribes of the hills are named Coles, Khands, and Sours, by the Oreas, in Sancrit, Pulinda.

The Oorea nation are justly described by Abul Fazel as effeminate. They are likewise so dull and stupid that in all ages, and under all governments, since the downfal of the Orissan monarchy, the principal official employments have been always engrossed by foreigners: Bengalese from the north, and Telingas from the south. The cultivating classes, however, are industrious, although they work without spirit and intelligence, and those of the plains are mild, quiet, inoffensive, and as easily managed as the Bengalese. They furnish also the class of servants known in Calcutta as balasore-bearers, in whom honesty and fidelity (according to their own notions of these virtues) are conspicuous. The inhabitants of the hills and jungles are more shy, sullen, inhospitable and uncivilized, and their chiefs are grossly stupid, debauched, tyrannical, and slaves to the most grovelling superstition.

The language of the Or or Odra

nation is a tolerably pure dialect of the Sanscrit, closely resembling the Bengalese, and remote from any affinity to the Telinga. On the west the Ooria and Goud languages pass into each other; but the Oria still prevails at Barwa, forty-five miles south of Ganjam, on the low lands, and among the hills as far as Kimedy, beyond which the Telinga predominates. In the interior mountains, however, from Goomsur to Palcondah, Bustah, and Jeypoor, the Odra is used by a great majority of the inhabitants.

The Pykes, or landed militia, combine with the greatest barbarism, and the blindest devotion to the will of their chiefs, a ferocity and restlessness that have always rendered them a formidable class of the population; by Abul Fazel, in 1582, they were estimated at 155,000. The Pulinda, or still more barbarous mountaineers, are distinguished as Coles, Khands, and Sours, all quite distinct in language, features and manners from the Hindoos of the plains, and probably the aborigines of the province before the arrival of the Brahminical priesthood.

The Coles are subdivided into thirteen tribes. Their proper country is said to be Colaut Des, which the natives describe as a hilly tract lying somewhere between Moharbunge, Singbhoom, Jynt, Bonye, Keunjein, and Dalbhoom, from whence they have encroached on and penetrated the adjacent territories. They are a hardy athletic race, black and ill-looking, ignorant, and savage, yet their houses are wholly built of wood, and they carry on a regular and extensive cultivation. This people admit none of the Hindoo deities, and seem scarcely to have any system of religious belief, but they venerate the sahajna tree (the *hyperanthera morunga*), paddy, mustard-seed, oil, and the dog, and they strike a bargain or conclude a pacification by breaking a straw (stipula), which act ratifies the compact. The Coles are extremely fond of fermented liquors, and eat all kinds of flesh and grain, as also various roots that grow spontaneously in the jungles. The flesh of the hog is universally prized. They are governed chiefly by numerous petty Sirdars, or heads of villages, called mankies and mundas; but in some cases pay tribute also to the hill-zemindars whose countries they inhabit.

The Khands probably differ little, if at all, from the Gonds. The Sours are found chiefly in the jungles of Khoordah, and in the woods that skirt the base of the hills. They are in general a harmless race, but so entirely destitute of moral sense, that they will as readily and unscrupulously deprive a human being of life as any beast of the forest, at the order of a chief or for the most trifling remuneration; and the quantity of blood they shed during the insurrection is almost incredible. They are distinguished from the Oorias by their low stature, mean appearance, and jet black colour, and by a wood axe which they always carry in their hands. Their language is scarcely intelligible to the Oorias, and they worship stumps of trees, blocks of stone, and clefts of rocks, suggesting impure ideas. Some are fixed in small village communities, others lead a migratory life, clearing annually spots of jungle, where they erect huts, and sow different kinds of millet, but they eat likewise almost every kind of food, animal or vegetable, roots, seeds, and fruits.

The earlier native histories of Orissa are fabulous legendary tales, copied from the Puranas, and rendered plausible by a mixture of local tradition. About A.D. 473, when the family of Kesari mounted the throne, the annals approach authenticity, before that they were a tissue of falsehoods, contradictions, inconsistencies, and anachronisms. Raja Anang Bheem Deo, of the Ganga Van's line, ascended the throne of Orissa A.D. 1174. He erected the great temple at Juggernauth, and measured the whole of the lands

within his dominions. In A.D. 1558, Kala Pahar, general of the Bengal forces, invaded the province with an army of Afghan cavalry, defeated Muckund Deo, the raja, and finally overthrew the independent sovereignty of Orissa. The Afghans were in their turn attacked and subdued by Khan Jehan, Acber's general, in 1578, and Orissa annexed to the Mogul empire. In 1582 Todur Mull, the celebrated dewan of the empire, visited the province, and superintended the introduction of his own land-revenue system.

In 1743 Orissa was invaded by a large army of Maharattas, under Bhasker Pundit, who swept the country, and continued annual plundering incursions until about 1750, when a temporary arrangement for chout was made by Aliverdi Khan, then soubahdar of Bengal, who finally transferred it to the Maharattas in 1756. From this date Orissa experienced such a complication of misrule, anarchy, weakness, rapacity, and violence, as excites wonder how communities could keep together, or even exist under so atrocious a tyranny, and in this condition it was found when conquered by the British arms in 1803; but the dominion of the Khoordah raja (the representative of its ancient monarchs), was not finally extinguished until 1804.

At present the most fertile and best inhabited portion of this extensive region is under the jurisdiction of the British government, the remainder possessed by tributary zemindars called ghurjauts or hill-chiefs, who mostly pay a fixed rent, and are under British protection, so far as refers to their external relations; but some few are also directly amenable to the European courts of justice. For a description of the British portion the reader is referred to the district of Cuttack. A large proportion of the tributary part of Orissa is a barren unhealthy tract, infested by wild beasts, and unproductive to the cultivator. The rivers and waters swarm with fish, aquatic reptiles, and alligators, the plains and jungles with winged vermin. The chief rivers are the Godavery, Mahanuddy, and Subunreeka, besides innumerable streams of a short course and temporary duration. The principal towns are Cuttack, Juggernauth, and Balasore.—(*Stirling, Richardson, J. Grant, &c.*)

Ossaheit.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, forty miles south by west from the town of Bareily; lat. 27° 49′ N., lon. 79° 6′ E.

Ottah.—A small town in the province of Agra, ten miles S.W. from Kalpee; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 79° 35′ E.

Oudanulla (*Udayala Nayla*).—A small town in the Bengal portion of the Boglipoor district, sixty-two miles N.W. by N. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 56′ N., lon. 87° 52′ E. There is not any substance so coarse as gravel either in the delta of the Ganges, or nearer the sea than Oudanulla, which is 400 miles distant by the windings of the river. At this place a rocky point, part of the base of the neighbouring hills, projects into the river. Besides an elegant bridge erected here by the unfortunate Sultan Shuja (brother to Aurengzebe), this place is noted for the extensive lines constructed here by Cossim Ali Khan, and forced by the troops under Major Adams in 1764. These lines, in fact, could only be of use during the rainy season, as between the right flank and the hills there is an extensive tract of rice ground. The whole is now a complete ruin, and very few traces remain of the approaches made by the assailants, where they were stormed by Major Adams, and during the rainy season, when they were thought impregnable; but in reality they were of no strength at any time, and only served to make the garrison think them secure from attack, when the fact was exactly the reverse.—(*F. Buchanan, Rennell, Hodges, &c.*)

OUDE.

(*Ayodhya.*)

This is one of the smallest pro-

vinces of Hindostan Proper, and is situated principally between the twenty-sixth and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by various petty districts tributary to Nepaul, from which it is separated by a range of hills and forests; to the south by Allahabad; on the east it has Bahar, and on the west Delhi and Agra. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles, by 100 the average breadth. The whole surface of this province is level, and extremely well watered by large rivers or copious streams which intersect the country, flowing all nearly in a south-east direction. When properly cultivated the land is extremely productive, yielding crops of wheat, barley, rice, and other grains; sugar-cane, indigo, poppies for opium, and all the richest articles raised in India. The air and climate are suited to the spontaneous generation of nitre, from the brine of which an impure culinary salt is procured by evaporation. Lapis lazuli is also a mineral production of Oude. The modern subdivisions are the same as the ancient, detailed by Abul Fazel in A.D. 1582. Of these Lucknow, Fyzabad, Khyrabad, Baraitche, with a section of Manicpoor, compose the king of Oude's reserved dominions, while the district of Gorucpoor belongs to his British allies. The principal rivers are the Ganges, which bound it to the west; the Goggra, and the Goomty; the chief towns are Lucknow, Fyzabad, Oude, Khyrabad, Baraitche, and Tanda.

The Hindoo inhabitants of Oude, Benares, and the Doab of the Agra province, are a very superior race, both in their bodily strength and mental faculties, to those of Bengal and the districts south of Calcutta, although the latter have fully as much acuteness, and more cunning. The Rajpoots or military class here generally exceed Europeans in stature, have robust frames, and are possessed of many valuable qualities in a military point of view. From the long predominance of the Mahomedans a considerable proportion of the inhabitants profess that religion, and from both persuasions a great number of the Company's best sepoys are procured. Their martial habits were kept on the alert, for until the supervision of Oude was assumed by the British government the whole region was in a state of political anarchy. Every individual travelled with the prospect of having to defend himself against robbers, or of exercising that vocation himself, for both of which events he was provided. The peasantry sowed and reaped with their swords and spears, ready for defence or plunder, as the occasion offered; and the rents were collected by an irregular banditti, under the denomination of an army, which devastated the country it pretended to protect.

Oude is much celebrated in Hindoo history as the kingdom of Dasaratha, the father of the great Rama, who extended his empire to the island of Ceylon, which he also subdued. At an early period after the first invasion it was subdued by the Mahomedans, and remained, with different vicissitudes, attached to the throne of Delhi, until the dissolution of the Mogul empire after the death of Aurengzebe. The first ancestor upon record of the reigning family was Saadet Khan, a native of Rishapoor, in Khorasan, who was appointed soubahdar of Oude during the reign of Mahomed Shah. He was succeeded by his nephew Sefdar Jung, who died in A.D. 1756, when the throne was ascended by his son Shuja ud Dowlah, who reigned until 1775. On his decease his son, Asoph ud Dowlah, became his successor, and reigned until 1797, when the dignity was for a short time usurped by a spurious son named Vizier Ali, whose illegitimacy being discovered, he was dethroned by Lord Teignmouth, and the government confided to Saadet Ali, the late nabob's brother, who was proclaimed vizier of Hindostan and nabob of Oude the 21st January 1798.

In A.D. 1790 the dominions of Oude occupied all the flat country

lying on both sides of the Ganges (with the exception of Rampoor) between that river and the northern mountains; as also the principal portion of the fertile tract between the Ganges and Jumna named the Doab, to within forty miles of Delhi. Ever since the pacification between Lord Clive and Shuja ud Dowlah, in 1765, this territory had been protected from external enemies, its internal peace preserved, and its dominions extended by the assistance of a British subsidiary force, the expense of which was defrayed by the nabobs of Oude. Subsequent to the breaking out of the French revolution the exigence of the times compelled a large augmentation of this standing army, and the disbursements increased proportionally; but owing to the mismanagement of the nabob's financial concerns an uncertainty attended its regular payment, although his revenues, under a proper administration, were not only equal to all the necessary expenditure, but capable, as the result verified, of realizing an enormous surplus. By a fatality attending the British influence in Hindostan, it was frequently obliged, in consequence of remote treaties, to maintain on the throne weak and profligate princes, who without that support would, in the natural progression of events, have been supplanted by some more able competitors. Their dominions in the mean time suffered by their vices, and their subjects were abandoned to the rapacity of the unprincipled associates of their low pleasures, who by their cruelty and extortion depopulated the country, and drove the inhabitants to a state of desperation. These observations more especially applied to the Oude territories during the long reign of Asoph ud Dowlah, and as an opportunity now occurred, the members of the Bengal presidency deemed it a duty imposed on them to endeavour to procure for the natives a better system of government, and at the same time remove the uncertainty which attended the payment of the subsidiary force.

In 1807 an extraordinary intrigue was discovered, in which Saadet Ali's second brother, commonly called Mirza Jungly, was implicated, which terminated in his removal from Lucknow to Patna. In 1808 the celebrated eunuch Almas Ali Khan died, on which event his wealth, which was considerable, was claimed both by the Bhow Begum (the nabob's mother) and by the nabob. The first grounded her pretensions on the circumstance of Almas Ali having been her servant; while the latter asserted that all the property having been acquired in the service of the Oude sovereignty, and from the resources of the country, the reigning prince was the legitimate heir of a person who could have no natural ones, and in this view of the subject he was supported by the Supreme Government. Besides this, many other petty and vexatious disputes arose between the two begums and the nabob, who always evinced a strong disinclination to employ British troops in suppressing the disturbances that occasionally broke out in the jaghires of the Bhow Begum, the younger Begum, and other persons under the direct protection of the British government; indeed he seemed to have no desire that they should be suppressed by any means. According to the construction of subsisting treaties, it did not appear that any other measures on the part of that government were admissible beyond those of remonstrance, and the resident was directed to endeavour to convince his excellency of the impolicy, as well as injustice, of countenancing disturbances within the lands of his jaghiredars, and the danger to which the general tranquillity of his country would be exposed, not to mention the injury his own reputation would sustain by tolerating insurrection within the limits of his own dominions.

Such, exclusive of some petty insurrections of zemindars, were the principal causes of internal irritation. With his powerful allies of Bengal, various collisions of interest and authority took place, for the British func-

tionaries on his frontier, after several years' experience, found that all their applications to the nabob for the apprehension of offenders who had sought refuge within his territories, almost invariably failed of success. Although on these occasions this potentate issued strict orders to his officers, they were either mere matters of form, or so considered by the persons to whom they were addressed. Of these two conclusions the latter seemed the most probable, as it would have greatly derogated from his excellency's character to have supposed him indifferent to the bringing of public offenders to justice, or that the orders issued by him on such occasions were not intended to be authoritative. Yet, when the feeble and inefficient system of all native administration is considered, it might reasonably be doubted whether he in reality possessed a degree of control over his officers sufficient to enforce their obedience, especially as the granting of an asylum within jurisdictions to offenders constituted a regular source of their profits.

On some occasions the nabob evinced a favourable disposition, by permitting British troops to act within his territories for the express purpose of apprehending delinquents; but at other times he proved restive, and withheld his consent without assigning any reason. The inconveniences resulting from this line of conduct, and the obstruction it occasioned to the due administration of justice within the British districts contiguous to those of Oude, were such, that one of the first stipulations entered into with his successor, authorized the British magistrates to pursue and seize public offenders within the reserved dominions of Oude. The interior management of Saadet Ali's territories was also extremely defective, and he was repeatedly urged by the Bengal government to adopt a line of conduct more creditable to himself, and more consistent with the obligations of existing treaties; but in vain, for although at one time he had given his consent to a reform, he afterwards retracted it; and as no hopes of success could [illegible]tertained from any further endeavours, short of compulsion, the further prosecution of the original arrangement was desisted from, and all attempts at a modification were put an end to by his unexpected death.

In 1801 a treaty was concluded, by the conditions of which certain districts yielding a gross annual revenue of 1,35,23,474 rupees, were ceded to the British government, in commutation of subsidy and of every other claim whatever. It was further stipulated, that until the formation of a commercial treaty, mutually beneficial, the navigation of the Ganges and of all the other boundary rivers of the two states should remain free and uninterrupted. When these arrangements were concluded, Saadet Ali assumed the uncontrolled management of his reserved territories, and being a man of abilities greatly superior to the generality of native princes, and habitually disposed to business, he retained the conducting of the affairs of government under his own immediate direction until his death.

This event happened on the 11th July 1814, when he was suddenly taken ill, and expired before medical assistance could be procured, supposed from apoplexy, or the bursting of a blood-vessel. On this emergency every necessary precaution was taken by the resident, and the accession of the nabob Ghazi ud Deen Hyder took place without the smallest interruption or disturbance. He confirmed all the subsisting treaties; acceded with apparent alacrity to the adjustment of many questions long pending with the British government; and, agreeably to the course followed on the accession of his father, Saadet Ali, assumed the title of vizier, without any reference to the Mogul at Delhi. In 1814 and 1815 he lent the British government two crores of rupees at six per cent., exhibiting the novel spectacle of a native prince a creditor of the British government to an amount exceeding two millions sterling, and regularly receiving the

interest thereon. At a subsequent period the transfer of the terriana, or low country, acquired from the Nepaulese, was made the means of redeeming one of the crores borrowed.

For almost half a century the British government had been endeavouring to prevail on the sovereigns of Oude to establish an improved system of administration, especially in revenue matters, within their hereditary dominions, but uniformly without success. The accession of Ghazi ud Deen held out another opportunity, and at the recommendation of the British government tehsildars (native collectors), with a commission of ten per cent., were appointed, with a view of making a triennial settlement to ascertain the resources of the nabob's dominions, and fix the principles on which a future and permanent settlement should be made. Nazims (native judicial officers) were also appointed for the distribution of justice. With these measures, however, the nabob being very soon dissatisfied, he superseded them, and promulgated regulations of his own, the result of which threatened an extraordinary defalcation of the instalments for the approaching year, and a recurrence to the system of farming as established in the time of his father. Since that distant period (1814) to the present day (1827) nothing has occurred to shew that any improved revenue and judicial system has been seriously contemplated, far less established. Recently, indeed, his majesty has admitted the expediency of abolishing the farming system, and has expressed his willingness to introduce gradually the plan of collecting the revenue through officers immediately responsible to government for the amount of their actual collections, but no overt act towards the carrying of this scheme into execution has as yet taken place.

Under an Indian prince the department of acbar (intelligence) is a system of espionage, which pervaded every district of this country, as well as the court and capital, during the life-time of Saadet Ali, and furnished daily grounds for the imprisonment of some subject or servant with a view to confiscation and forfeiture. The expense of it is nearly equal to an efficient police, and the channels of corruption and oppression which it opens, by encouraging false accusations, are destructive to the morals of the people and of the safety of their property, as well as of the true interests of the sovereign. On the accession of Ghazi ud Deen the acbar establishment was abolished, but the system is so congenial to the habits and principles of native chiefs, and to the personal character of the reigning king, that he soon revived it. At the earnest solicitation of the British government, soon after the commencement of his reign, he appointed ostensible ministers for the transaction of public business; but in process of time, after much wavering and inconsistency, the arrangement terminated, first in their suspension, and afterwards in their dismissal. The inherent fickleness of the nabob's disposition, his ready and implicit belief in the scandalous reports of his news-writers, and of the intriguing persons around him, destroy the confidence and subvert the authority of his ministers, and preclude the beneficial exercise of any one of their functions, so that if one set retire or be dismissed, a similar state of affairs within a short period of time will be produced with respect to their successors.

On the 9th of October 1819 Ghazi ud Deen, the reigning nabob, renounced all titular subservience to the throne of Delhi, assuming the title of king instead of vizier of Oude, and issuing at the same time a new currency, impressed with his own name and legend, but of the same weight and standard as before. This change was cheerfully acquiesced in by the British government, whose interest it was to detach the rich and populous province of Oude from all subordination to the Mogul empire, or sympathy with the Mussulman cause generally. On this occasion the ex-nabob assumed many pompous

titles, such as "king of the age," and "king conqueror of infidels," hitherto peculiar to the house of Timour, and not at all creditable to his majesty's common sense, or complimentary to his infidel allies. While the Marquis of Hastings was Governor-general he used to address that nobleman and the British government figuratively as his uncle, and the reply was addressed to the nabob as nephew; but so much familiarity appearing inconsistent with his augmentation of dignity, he requested the form might be abrogated, which was done accordingly, and he is now addressed as Ghazi ud Deen Hyder Shah (Padshahi Oude, king of Oude). In 1827 he lent the British government a crore of rupees.

The reserved territories of Oude occupy an area of about 21,000 square miles, and contain a population of at least three millions; but the sovereignty is too dependent on the British government to be regarded as one of the political states of Hindostan. On account of a defective system the revenue derived from such an extent of fertile country is very inferior to what it might be made to produce under a more enlightened system of taxation; but the income of the Oude sovereigns is to be estimated rather negatively than positively, rather from the absence of taxation than the magnitude of the receipts; for being relieved by their alliance with the British government from all external alarms, and having no funds or national debt, their expenses are merely fiscal and personal; and without diminishing the splendour of his court or the comfort of his style of living, Ghazi ud Deen might, with the slightest attention, annually lay aside (as was supposed to have been done by his father, Saadet Ali) half a million sterling.—(*Public MS. Documents, Marquis of Hastings, Major Baillie, Guthrie, Rennell, &c.*)

OUDE.—The ancient capital of the province of Oude, situated on the south side of the Goggra, seventy-nine miles east from Lucknow; lat. 26° 48′ N., lon. 82° 4′ E. By Abul Fazel in 1582 it is described as follows. "Oude is one of the largest cities of Hindostan. In ancient times this city is said to have measured 148 coss in length and thirty-six coss in breadth. Upon sifting the earth which is round this city small grains of gold are sometimes found in it. This town is esteemed one of the most sacred places of antiquity."

Pilgrims resort to this vicinity, where the remains of the ancient city of Oude, the capital of the great Rama, are still to be seen; but whatever may have been its former magnificence it now exhibits nothing but a shapeless mass of ruins. The modern town extends a considerable way along the banks of the Goggra, adjoining Fyzabad, and is tolerably well peopled; but inland it is a mass of rubbish and jungle, among which are the reputed sites of temples dedicated to Rama, Seeta, his wife, Lakshman, his general, and Hunimaun (a large monkey), his prime minister. The religious mendicants who perform the pilgrimage to Oude are chiefly of the Ramata sect, who walk round the temples and idols, bathe in the holy pools, and perform the customary ceremonies.

OUDGHIR (*Udayaghiri*).—A populous village, with a fort and cypress garden, in the province of Beeder, forty miles N.N.W. from the city of Beeder; lat 18° 18′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E.

OULLER LAKE.—A lake in the province of Cashmere, adjacent to the city of Cashmere, which in A.D. 1582 was described by Abul Fazel as twenty-eight coss in circumference with a palace in its centre built by sultan Zein ul Abdeen. Its modern dimensions are much less, but it does not appear to have ever been accurately surveyed by any European.

OUND.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, division of Joonere, about five miles N.W. from Poona. It is remarkable for the handsome Hindoo temple it contains, and its fine

situation on the Moota river.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ouva.—One of the ancient Candian provinces in Ceylon, situated to the south-east of the town of Candy. Viewed from the top of the Idalgashena pass, it presents an extensive surface of green grass hills, walled round by lofty blue mountains free from jungle, exhibiting in this respect a remarkable contrast to the neighbouring province of Suffragam. Lower Ouva is nearly flat, and in a great measure overgrown with wood, and uninhabited. It is also extremely unhealthy, yet contains strong vestiges of ancient cultivation and population.

In the dry season the hills of Upper Ouva appear bare, and wood scarce, owing probably to a long dry season, strong winds, and more especially to the annual burning of the grass by the natives. The same observations apply to Boulutgamé, the adjoining hills of Kotmalé, and to a considerable portion of farther Drombera. Upper Ouva presents another striking peculiarity, which is its undulated surface of hills and valleys, equally rounded and smooth, owing probably to the rocks being so nearly of the same quality throughout as to undergo a regular disintegration from the action on it of air and water.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Owerkair.—A fortified town in the province of ———, captured from the ex Peshwa Bajerow in the campaign of 1818.

Owla (*Aula*).—A decayed town in the province of Delhi, about sixteen miles N.W. from the town of Bareily, with the Nawaul Nullah stream on the south-western side. On the summit of an eminence is a brick fort, erected about eighty years ago by Ali Mahomed, the founder of the Rohillah state, who held his court here. In the environs, which during the Oude government were waste, are to be found the ruins of palaces, mosques, and gardens.—(*Franklin, &c.*)

Owra.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Chumbul river, in the pergunnah of Chundwassa; lat. 24° 12′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Holcar, and contained about 400 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

P.

Paber River.—A river of Northern Hindostan, which runs within the Himalaya mountains. Its course in lat. 31° 31′ N., lon. 78° 18′ E. is from east twenty-five degrees south to twenty-five degrees to the north of west. The northern bases of many of the snowy peaks seen from Hindostan are washed by its waters.—(*Hodgson, &c.*)

Paccalungang (*Pakalungan*).—A town and district on the north-east coast of Java, 282 miles east from Batavia; lat. 6° 52′ S., lon. 109° 40′ E., and forty-eight miles west from Samarang. This is the head-quarters of a landrost or resident, and has a numerous population of natives and Chinese. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the division of Paccalungang contained an area of 607 square miles, and 115,442 inhabitants, of which number 2,046 were Chinese.—(*Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

Pachete (*Pacher*).—A large zemindary in the province of Bahar, at present incorporated with the Jungle Mahal district. In 1784 it contained about 2,779 square miles of surface. It was formerly a frontier territory towards the western confines of Bengal, and purposely left in a jungly condition; but of late years cultivation has been much extended, and new and populous villages created. The principal towns are Ragoonauthpoor, Ragoonauth Gunge, and Jaulda, where troops were formerly stationed. Coal of a good quality has been found on this estate.

A few miserable huts is all that re-

mains of what was the town of Pachete; lat. 23° 36′ N., lon. 86° 50′ E., 126 miles N.W. from Calcutta. The fort is now a wilderness, some miles in extent, situated at the base of a high wooded mountain. It was no doubt at one period a very formidable strong-hold, being surrounded by a treble labyrinth of moats and mounds. Ever since the rebellion and flight of the Pachete raja, about thirty years ago, Pachete has been deserted by his family, which now resides at Kishengunge in the southern quarter of the zemindary.—(*Fullarton, Jas. Grant, &c.*)

PACHITAN.—A district on the south coast of the island of Java, which, according to a census taken by the British government in 1815, contained 22,678 inhabitants. The town of Pachitan stands in lat 8° 21′ S., lon. 111° 2′ E., 100 miles S.S.E. from Samarang.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

PACKANGA.—A town on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, situated on a river of the same name; lat. 3° 32′ N. This was formerly a place of some note, but has long fallen to decay, although situated on a deep fresh-water river capable of admitting at its mouth vessels of 100 tons burthen. The exports formerly were gold dust, tin, and rattans.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

PADAGAUM (*Padma grama*).—A small and poor village in the province of Bejapoor, within the reserved territories of the Satara raja, and about thirty-one miles travelling distance N. by E. from the town of Satara. Two miles and a half north of this place a great bridge formed of wooden piles, supported on piers of masonry, and propped by sloping beams against the strength of the current, has been thrown across the impetuous and turbid stream of the Neera river.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PADANG.—A Dutch settlement on the west coast of Sumatra, founded prior to 1649, to which several other factories are subordinate; lat. 0° 48′ S., lon. 99° 55′ E. The town of Padang lies one mile within the river, where, towards the sea, the country is low, but inland mountainous. Some camphor, benzoin, and pepper, and a considerable quantity of gold from the interior, is collected here, and sent to Batavia. In 1826 a war was going on with the fanatical Padries of the interior, from whom some territory was acquired.—(*Marsden, Elmore, &c.*)

PADANG MEW.—A small town in the province of Pegu, from whence a party of sepoys under Lieutenant Brown marched in 1826 across the mountains over a most difficult and almost inaccessible road to Ramree in Arracan.

PADSHAPOOR.—A subdivision of Bejapoor, situated chiefly near the river Markunda, before it joins the Malpurba at Gokauk. Its greatest length is thirteen miles, but the total contents of its area do not exceed 100 square miles. It is considered as forming part of the ancient region of Kanara, and Kanarese (or Kenree, as pronounced by the natives) is the prevailing language, although Maharatta be also understood. The hills are covered with brushwood, but no tree of any magnitude is to be seen. Numerous small perennial streams issue from these hills, and on their banks the villages are built. These streams afterwards fall into the Markunda, thereby indicating the general slope of the country. At Chikuldenee, only nine miles W.S.W. from Padshapoor, nearly on the same level, and with scarcely an intervening hill, it is supposed the annual fall of rain is almost three times what it is at Padshapoor.

In 1821 the total number of inhabitants in the Padshapoor talook was 10,443, or about 104 persons to the square mile. This population is of a mixed description, the most numerous class being the Jungum, next the common Maharattas, then the Brahmins, Beruds, Mahomedans, and a few Jains. The Jungum compose the bulk of the cultivating and la-

bouring tribe in Kanara. The lay members of this community, known by the name of Lingayets, are remarkable for the exclusive worship of Siva, in the form of the lingam, of which they always carry a symbol. They also reject the spiritual control of the Brahmins with signs of contempt and aversion; but they do not appear to have gained much by this emancipation, as they are kept in equally servile subjection by spiritual guides of their own sect.

The Beruds form a perfectly distinct class of society, corresponding in some measure with the Bheels of Gujerat, and Ramooses of the Poona district, but not identical in their caste and habits. They present the curious union of notorious and professional thieving, with the guardianship of the public property, frequently performing both occupations at the same time. The village of Chikuldenee, near the western hills, is entirely peopled by them, under a naik of their own tribe, who, having in 1820 become mad, his plundering avocations were exercised so vigorously by his wife, that the British government found it necessary totally to suppress the Chikuldenee state. Before this interference it was customary for village communities to place themselves under the protection of a Berud naik, or chief of a band of robbers, assigning to him a piece of land for his guardianship and abstinence from plunder.

The Jains are now few in number, but their temples are numerous, and distinguished by the superiority of their sculpture and architecture. Bears are numerous and destructive to the crops, their food being wholly vegetable, for though instances occur of bears attacking a man, it appears to be always for the purpose of chewing him all over, not of actually devouring and swallowing him. Latterly under the Maharatta sway, revenue from land, like every other species of fixed property, appears to have been of so uncertain a tenure, that the land affording it was not a saleable commodity.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

PADSHAPOOR.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, situated about twenty-three miles travelling distance N.E. by N. from Belgaum; lat. 16° 17′ N., lon. 74° 59′ E. This place stands on the banks of the Hurncassy river, and is built of stone, with a fort on an eminence in the midst.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PAGAHM.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated on the east side of the Irawady, 120 miles S.W. from Umerapoora; lat. 21° N., lon. 94° 40′ E. In remote times this city was the residence of a long dynasty of kings, and is still famous for its numerous temples, to count which is among the proverbial impossibilities of the Burmese. Scarcely any thing now remains of ancient Pagahm, except its innumerable mouldering temples and the vestiges of an old brick fort, the ramparts of which may still be traced. When visited by Col. Symes in 1795, the bazars were well provided with rice, pulse, greens, garlick, onions, and fruit, besides fresh fish, gnapee, and dead lizards, which last the Burmese account a great delicacy when well cooked; but the markets did not contain any butchers' meat. Pagahm is said to have been the residence of forty-five successive monarchs, and abandoned 500 years ago in consequence of divine monition. Indeed its remains prove it to have been a place of no ordinary splendour. Many of the ancient temples here are not solid at the bottom. A well-arched dome supports a ponderous superstructure, within which an image of Gaudma sits enshrined. His general posture is sitting on a pedestal, adorned with representations of the sacred lotus leaf. Even after it ceased to be the metropolis, Pagahm was long reckoned the second city of the empire, but when visited by Capt. Canning in 1809 presented a strange scene of desolation.

In 1825 when captured by the British army under Sir Archibald Campbell advancing on Ava, its condition was not found improved, while the surrounding country was covered with

interminable heaps of ruins and rubbish, and more resembled an enormous cemetery than a town. In the Shoezeigon temple were four stupendous gilt images of Gaudma, fifty feet high, facing each entrance, according to Burmese traditions of the remotest antiquity, and built by supernatural agency. From hence to Ava, the capital, the country consists of extensive plains of the finest land watered by the Irawady, interspersed with evergreen woods, while the banks of the river are studded with villages, pagodas, temples, and monasteries.

For several days march south of Pagahm the British officers had an opportunity of observing the singularly strong petrifying property of the soil or air, in converting wood into stone. Water did not appear to be the agent, as the most beautiful specimens are found in the driest parts, where almost every stone appears to have a ligneous origin. Large trunks of trees, branches, and even leaves are to be found at every step changed into solid masses of stone, retaining the different hues, and showing distinctly the most delicate fibres. Many are seen that have not undergone complete transmutation but retain part of their woody substance, but still in these the petrifying process appears to be going on. In some instances the pillars that supported the kioums or convents, were found completely petrified at the base, while a little higher the change was only incipient, and the summit unaltered wood. — (*Symes, Trant, Snodgrass, Canning, &c.*)

Pahang.—A territory in the Malay peninsula, which extends from Sedile, in lat. 2° 15′ N., to Kamasoung, in lat. 4° 15′ N. It yields tin and gold; the first to the amount of 1,000 peculs annually; the last, wrought by the Chinese, about two peculs. In 1825 the total population was estimated at 50,000 persons. The Pahang raja, is nominally no more than bindara (treasurer or first minister) to the sultan of Johore; in reality quite independent. By the early Portuguese writers he is described as "King of Pan."—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

Paikrapettah.—A small town in the northern Circars, district of Vizagapatam, situated on a plain bounded by hills, within six miles of the sea-coast, and about sixty-six miles travelling distance S.W. from the town of Vizagapatam. It stands on the north bank of the small river Settiveram, which separates that district from Rajamundry, and is chiefly inhabited by weavers.—*Fullarton, &c.*)

Paindra.—A zemindary in the province of Gundwana, situated near Omerkuntuc, the zemindar of which, Ajeet Singh, had been displaced about 1800, by the Maharatta soubahdar of Choteesghur, but who was restored when the country was acquired by the British government in 1818.—(*Major Agnew, &c.*)

Painkhandi.—A subdivision of the British district of Kumaon in Northern Hindostan, composed of cessions from Nepaul in 1815, and situated between the thirtieth and thirty-first degrees of north latitude. The surface is extremely abrupt and mountainous, abounding with chasms and mountain streams. The high and snowy peak of Ramnee, visible from Bareily, is said to be 22,700 feet above the level of the sea. In this rugged tract, wild hogs, deer, bears, and pheasants, are found among the Tugusi range of woody mountains. The forests contain fir, cedar, pine, sycamore, horse-chestnut, walnut, and yew-trees. Some of the cedars are of enormous dimensions; instances have occurred of trees measuring twenty-seven feet in circumference, four feet from the ground, with a height of 180 feet. Service trees are also found bearing much larger fruit than in England. Hemp grows to the height of ten and twelve feet, and when thinly sown with thick stems, sending out side branches, exhibiting a state of luxuriance rarely seen elsewhere.

In Painkhandi there is also found a common plant resembling butchers' broom, said to be the sebburua, from which the mountaineers make a paper, sold at Serinagur and Almora, and which from thence finds its way into Hindostan, where the native bankers use it in preference for their bills of exchange, as the ink does not sink further into the substance than is necessary to retain the writing. It is also stronger than other paper, and does not readily absorb water. Birch bark is likewise used by the natives to write on, and is sent to Lucknow, where it is used for the inner covering of hookah snakes.

This pergunnah contains twenty-two villages, of which ten are situated among the snowy mountains, and solely inhabited by Bhooteas. In 1813, under the Nepaulese, Painkhandi was assessed at 4,051 Gorkha rupees, half in money and half in merchandize. In 1816, after its acquisition by the British, a lease was granted in the first instance to the Seannas, or headmen, for 3,500 Gorkha rupees, with the usual agreement as to money and merchandize. On the payment of the first instalment at Seringagur by the Seannas, it was found that for many of the articles given there was no sale whatever, while of the others the market price was far below the rates specified in the engagement. Under these circumstances the Seannas were directed in future to pay, in lieu of one-half merchandize, one-third of its amount in money, (equivalent to 437 Furruckabad rupees) the other two-thirds being granted as a deduction to compensate for a probable loss on the sale.—(*Moorcroft, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PAINOMJEUNG.—A castle in Tibet, which, from its perpendicular height and the irregularity of its cliffs, appears impregnable. Lat. 28° 40′ N., lon. 89° 18′ E.; seventeen miles E.S.E. from Teshoo Loomboo. The valley of Jhansu is very extensive, and has greatly the appearance of having been once under water, the bed of a lake. It is populous and well-cultivated, and particularly famous for the manufacture of woollens of two colours, garnet and white, which seldom exceed half a yard in breadth. They are close woven, and thick like frieze, and are very soft to the touch, the fleece of the sheep being remarkably fine.—(*Capt. Turner, &c.*)

PAITAN.—A district on the north-east coast of Borneo, containing a bay and river of the same name. It is remarkable for the abundance of camphor, and also yields clove-bark, and plenty of lisang (cattle). The bay is very full of shoals, and the coast on both sides extremely foul. There is a creek leading from Paitan into a large bay, between it and Malloodoo bay, in which are many islands much encumbered with shoals; indeed the islands, islets, and shoals in this portion of the Eastern seas are beyond number.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

PAKANG.—A mart in Northern Hindostan, situated on the frontiers of Tibet and the Gorkha province of Chayenpoor; lat. 27° 56′ N., lon. 86° 58′ E. According to native reports the country here is not very hilly, but its elevation is so great, and the cold in winter so intense that it remains uninhabited, except during the hottest of the summer months, when it is resorted to by shepherds and traders. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

PAKANG YE.—A town in the Burmese dominions, situated on the banks of the Irawady, which is here 1,500 yards wide with a moderate current.

PAKNAM (*pak, mouth, nam, water or river*).—A town in Siam, four miles from the mouth of the Menam (or Siam) river, which is here at least three-fouths of a mile wide, and very deep, with wood-covered banks. This place extends above two miles along the margin of the river, but with seldom more than two or three houses inland from its banks. The fort here has been of late much en-

larged, and both sides of the river fortified with batteries. The word Paknam is of frequent occurrence in Siam, apparently signifying the mouth of a river, and from hence ships proceed up to Bankok, the modern capital of Siam.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

Palachy (*Palasi*).—A town in the province of Coimbatoor, sixteen miles S. by E. from the capital of the same name; lat. 10° 39′ N., lon 77° 6′ E. This place in 1800 contained a small temple and about 300 houses, with a small fort adjacent, and from this point the streams run east and west to the Coromandel and Malabar coasts. In the vicinity of Palachy, in the year above-mentioned, a pot was dug up containing a great many coins of Augustus and Tiberius. They were of two kinds, but all of the same value, each weighing fifty-six grains.

Palamcotta (*Palincata*). — A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, fifty-seven miles N.N.E. from Cape Comorin, and 200 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 8° 35′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E.

Palamcotta.—A town in the Carnatic province, thirty-nine miles S.S.W. from Pondicherry.—lat. 11° 27′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E.

Palamow (*Palamo*). — A hilly and jungly zemindary in the province of Bahar, and district of Ramghur, extending from the southern extremity of Ontaree to Burwa, in Chuta Nagpoor, a distance of sixty-five miles, and formerly bounded by the Maharatta pergunnahs of Sirgoojah and Jushpoor in Gundwana. It contains many ghants or passes of various degrees of strength; but it was experimentally found they presented no insurmountable obstacles to the predatory incursions of the Pindaries. There are no rivers of any magnitude, but many small streams and rivulets, and the soil is in many parts strongly impregnated with iron. The mimosa from which the drug named catechu or terra japonica is extracted abounds in Palamow. By the natives the tree is named kheir, but the extract when prepared kut'h. Although the lion is not usually considered an inhabitant of this part of India, one was shot by the natives in 1814 near the village of Koondra, and the body being taken to the magistrate of Ramghur was recognized as that of a lion: it may, however, have been a stray one from the north. The revenue imposed on the raja of Palamow for so vast an extent of country was originally only 12,182 rupees, yet in 1805 Raja Chooramun Ray, the zemindar, was 17,199 rupees in arrears, which in 1814 had accumulated to 55,700 rupees, owing to the incapacity of the raja, and the refractory conduct of his jaghiredars. This unfortunate pergunnah was in consequence brought to the hammer, and being a frontier station, was bought in by government for 51,000 rupees.

The tenures of the jaghiredars in Palamow, are rather of a singular description, and are said to be coeval with the establishment of the late zemindar's family thirty years ago. There is no doubt, however, that they were all originally removeable by the raja, who, before the British code, exercised the power of life and death without restraint, and the renewal of sunnuds or grants at the succession of each raja, implies the discretional power to grant or withhold it. Like the rest of the Ramghur jurisdiction, Palamow is thinly inhabited, and on account of the irregular and rocky nature of its surface, and want of navigable rivers, without facilities for the prosecution of commerce. In 1814 it did not contain any collection of houses larger than an ordinary village.—(*Public MS. Documents, Rooghnedge, &c.*)

Palamow.—A village in the province of Bahar and district of Ramghur from which the above zemindary derives its name; lat. 23° 50′ N., lon. 84° 8′ E.; 135 miles S.W. from Patna.

Palantong.—A town of India beyond the Ganges, situated in the

country of the Kathi Shans fifty miles S.E. from Munipoor; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 95° 29′ E.

PALAPETTY (*Phalapati*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Dindigul, fifty-two miles W.S.W. from Trichinopoly; lat. 10° 33′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E.

PALAUR RIVER (*or milk river*).—This river has its source in the Mysore province among the hills of Nundydroog, not far from the Pennaur, the first flowing to the south, the latter to the north. The Palaur, after a winding course of 220 miles, falls into the bay of Bengal near Sadras.

PALAWAN ISLE.—A large island in the Eastern seas, extending between the northern extremity of Borneo, with which and the Philippines it forms an extensive chain of islands. Its extreme length may be estimated at 275 miles, and the average breadth about thirty-two miles.

The surface of the country is described as being low and flat at the base of the hills. The productions are cowries, wax, tortoise-shell, and sea-slug, the last in abundance. There is also much ebony and lakawood, and it is said there are gold mines and hot springs. The west side is chiefly inhabited by a savage people who seldom frequent the coast. The greater part of Palawan was formerly subject to the Sooloos, but it is little known to Europeans.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

PALCOTE (*Palacata*).—A small town or hamlet in the province of Bahar, division of Chuta Nagpoor, 220 miles W. by N. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 84° 40′ E.

PALEMBANG.—A principality on the south-eastern coast of Sumatra, extending along the river Moosee, which rises within two days' journey of Bencoolen, and runs nearly across the island. On the north and east it is bounded by the straits of Banca; on the south by the Lampoon country; on the west and south-west by ranges of mountains which separate it from Bencoolen and its dependencies; and on the north-west its limits adjoin those of the sultan of Jambi. The provinces and their subdivisions derive their names from the different rivers and tributary streams that flow through them. The most valuable district, named Anak Moosee from its being at the confluence of several streams with the Moosee, is situated a considerable distance inland. The names of some other rivers and districts are Mooste, Lamatang Ogan, Rembang Ogan, Beldida, and Kamareeng. The Soosang branch of the Moosee, on which Palembang stands about seventy miles from the sea, is the most safe, and navigable for large ships; but the town is also accessible by other branches. The adjacent tract, however, is so low and swampy that there are scarcely any villages from its mouth up to the city, the country bearing in many respects a strong resemblance to the Sunderbunds of Bengal.

The town of Palembang occupies both sides of the Moosee, which is here 1,200 feet in breadth. Some of the houses are erected on large rafts, anchored near the banks, while on shore the adjacent houses being raised on posts, are, during high water, insulated. Behind these are other rows of houses built on higher ground. The sultan's palace is a large brick structure surrounded by a high wall, and many of the chiefs, and wealthy Arabs and Chinese are commodiously, and for the climate, comfortably lodged. From one extreme to the other the town may extend three miles along each bank, and in 1820 was estimated to contain 25,000 inhabitants.

The foreign trade is carried on with Java, Malacca, Penang, Rhio, and the coast of Borneo, by Chinese, Arabs, and Malays. Two large junks arrive annually from China with the north-west monsoon in January, and depart with the south-east in August. The imports consist of English, Madras, and Bengal cotton-piece goods, copper, iron, steel, raw and manu-

factured; teas, drugs, Chinese silks, raw and manufactured; nankeens, earthen-ware, salt, and Java cloths. The exports are pepper (about 15,000 peculs), cotton (of two sorts), rattans, bees'-wax, dragons'-blood, benzoin, gambir, elephants'-teeth, kayoo-lacker, and birds'-nests. As in all Malay-states, the sovereign is also the chief merchant. The port and Palembang river, of all Malay harbours, have always been considered the safest and best regulated; indeed, there is scarcely another town of note within the sultan's dominions. In 1820, from the number of men registered for feudal services, a rough estimate gave a population of 75,000 scattered over the provinces, to which 25,000 being added for the capital, gave a total of 100,000 souls.

Palembang holds the first rank among the native Malay states of Sumatra, and the Malay language here spoken is esteemed a standard of perfection. The present rulers and a large portion of the inhabitants are of Javanese derivation; but Palembang is supposed by the best authorities to have been the original country of the Malay race. In the interior there is a wild people named Orangkubu by the Malays, who refuse all personal intercourse with the latter, yet manage to carry on a kind of trade by leaving articles on a certain spot, beating a gong, and retiring, when the Malays take them up, leave an equivalent, and withdraw. Palembang was taken and burned by the Dutch in A.D. 1664. In 1812 it was taken possession of by the British, but subsequently restored to the Dutch, who were expelled by the natives in 1819, but after several repulses reconquered it in 1822.—(*Miscellanies*, *Marsden*, *Thorn*, *&c.*)

Palounge.—A town (formerly fortified) in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, 122 miles S.E. from Patna; lat. 24° 5′ N., lon. 86° 15′ E.

Palighaut.—A town and district attached to the modern province of Malabar, sixty-eight miles S.E. from Calicut; lat. 10° 45′ N., lon. 76° 38′ E. The fort here was built by Hyder on his conquest of Malabar, in the tract called Palighautcherry, which then belonged to the Shekury raja, one of the petty chiefs of Malabar. Round the fort many desas (estates), villages, and bazars, are scattered, containing altogether a considerable population, but there is very little of the appearance of a town. In A.D. 1800 this small district contained 106,500 free inhabitants, and 16,574 slaves, total 123,074 persons, yet the proportion of it occupied by thick forests, and not inhabited, is asserted to be considerable. These forests have a great advantage from being intersected by several branches of the Paniany river, by which, during the rainy season, the timber may be floated to the sea. About 45,000 feet of teak may be procured annually, but it can only be done with the assistance of a large body of trained elephants.—(*F. Buchanan*, *&c.*)

Palhanpoor.—A town, the capital of a Mahomedan principality, in the north-west quarter of the Gujerat province, within the limits of the Mahy Kaunta, situated about eighty miles N. by W. from Ahmedabad; lat. 24° 11′ N., lon. 72° 20′ E. The pergunnah attached to this place is in the Mahy Kaunta division, and in 1813 was reckoned to contain 130 villages, producing annually about two and a half lacks of rupees. The boundaries of the district are no where more than forty miles from the capital. To the north are the lands of Kheyraloo and Sidpoor, belonging to the Guicowar, to which there is an open road. The town of Deesa is distant to the west about twelve miles, and the country between them a plain. The town of Dhunteewara is fifteen miles distant towards the north, and the intermediate country is level and intersected by the river Banass. To the north of Dhunteewara is Sooree, a pergunnah of a mountainous surface.

when the foliage is withered and the land-wind prevails, scarcely a vestige of vegetation is to be seen. A considerable space of the country is covered with stones of a calcareous nature and slaty texture, and the surrounding hills are composed of the same substance.

A portion of the revenue of Palnaud arises from duties levied on the internal trade to and from the sea-coast, and collected principally at Timerycotta. Indian corn is the grain most generally cultivated, and a brownish sort of cotton is also raised, and much esteemed by the Punjum weavers about Samulcotta. Cassia, senna also grows abundantly. The jungles of Palnaud are resorted to by herds from the adjacent countries, their proprietors paying a sum to government according to the number of cattle. Diamonds and other precious stones were formerly discovered in this district, and more especially in the bed of the Krishna, and saltpetre of a superior quality is manufactured here. Palnaud is infested by the Chinchoosy race of plunderers, and in 1816 was visited by the Pindaries who penetrated through the Bodratee pass, which is long, narrow and stony, and requires six hours for even a small party to pass through. —(*Heyne, Oakes, F. W. Robertson, &c.*)

PALOONSHAH.—The capital of a large zemindary tributary to the Nizam, situated in the north-west quarter of the Hyderabad province, eighty-eight miles N.W. from Rajamundry; lat. 17° 56′ N., lon. 31° 2′ E. The town stands in a rich luxuriant valley, about four miles wide, surrounded on all sides by lofty ranges of mountains, the passes through which are the only accesses to Paloonshah. The fort is 150 yards square, built of stone, with octagon bastions, but it is a post of no strength, being commanded by a high hill to the east. The rampart may be ridden up and down on either side and resembles the bank of a tank. When visited by Captain Blunt in 1794, the town was populous and two miles in circumference, but consisted mostly of poor Telinga huts. It had then a manufactory of matchlocks, jinjalls, spears, sabres and other weapons; but it has since greatly decayed, for when captured by a Madras detachment in 1813, it presented a very miserable appearance. Palconda where the zemindar resides is a common mud ghurry or native fort in the plain, not different from those seen in nearly all the large villages in the Nizam's domains: besides these he possesses several other ghurries in the neighbourhood. The country is naturally strong and the climate sickly and unhealthy. In 1812, in consequence of the robberies instigated and protected by Ashwa Row, the zemindar of Paloonshah, his possessions were seized by a British detachment and a heavy fine imposed.—(*J. B. Blunt, Col. G. Hamilton, J. O. Tod, &c.*)

PALPA.—A division of Northern Hindostan, subject to the Nepaulese, and bounded on the south by the British district of Gorucpoor. The country of Palpa independent of Butool is in general lower and warmer than the valley of Nepaul Proper. The most important crop is transplanted rice, next to that rice broadcast, then maize, then a pulse named urid, after that the lathyrus sativa, called dubi keras, with various other grains, pulses, and oil seeds. There are many routes from the plains to the hills of Palpa, but except by a few smugglers, they have been mostly deserted since the Gorkha conquest, that people not wishing for many open routes by which armies might ascend the hills.

The Palpa Rajas possessed also a very important mart named Rerighaut, situated on the banks of the Gunduck, here named the Narayani. The only practicable roads in the country pass this way, and the position is important both in a military and commercial point of view. During the cold season there is a mela or fair held at Rerighaut, to which, it is said loaded canoes can pass up, ex-

cept at a narrow rapid between two rocks at a place named Gongkar, a little above Dewghaut, where there is a portage. Canoes can ascend to Dewghaut with little difficulty, although three rapids intervene. During the floods this navigation is altogether unadvisable, the Gunduck being then of tremendous volume and rapidity. Near Tansen, the present capital, there was formerly an iron mine, and since the conquest a copper mine has been discovered there, which, in 1809, is said to have yielded metal to the value of 50,000 rupees. Lead is also found in the small territory of Knidim.

According to native traditions, when the Hindoo colony from Chitore first took possession of Palpa, it belonged to a Magar chief, and the people were also of that tribe. Brahmins, chiefly of the spurious breed called Jausi, are now the most numerous class; next to these are the Khas, while the Magars occupy only the third place. Since the Nepaul rajas seized on this country, the seat of government has been transferred to Tansen, a town at some distance, west of Palpa, which in 1809 was the head-quarters of a Gorkha commander and his staff.—(*F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Palyad.—An inland town in the Gujerat peninsula, division of Cattywar, forty-six miles west from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 22° 14′ N., lon. 71° 41′ E. At this place, in 1809, there was a detachment of the Bombay army permanently stationed, to protect British interests in this quarter.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Pampar.—A town in the province of Beeder, seventy-three miles N.W. from Hyderabad; lat. 17° 49′ N., lon. 77° 54′ E.

Pamper.—A town in the province of Cashmere, situated on the north side of the Jhylum river, twelve miles east from the city of Cashmere; lat. 34° 20′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E.

Pamour.—A town and small pergunnah in the Northern Carnatic, district of Ongole, thirty-six miles S.W. from the town of Ongole; lat. 15° 2′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E. At the village of Yerrapilly in this pergunnah, by digging about two fathoms under ground, copper ore of a rich quality is procured, said to yield fifty per cent. of the pure metal. The species of ore is that named the anhydrous carbonate of copper. The general use of brass and copper vessels all over India, and the preference given to them by the natives, render it probable (and appearances indicate) that large quantities of copper were at one time collected here; but the European metal can now be imported at so much cheaper a rate, that the working of these mines has for many years been intermitted.

Panagur.—A town of some antiquity in the province of Gundwana and district of Gurrah, eleven miles north from the town of Gurrah; lat. 23° 19′ N., lon. 80° 17 E. This place contains several Hindoo temples, and there is a magnificent tank in the vicinity.—(*Fitzclarence, &c.*)

Panamao Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, about forty-five miles in circumference, and situated between the eleventh and twelfth degrees of north latitude.

Panamgoody.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, twenty-two miles N.N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 21′ N., lon. 77° 53′ E.

Panaroocan.—A town and district at the north-eastern extremity of Java, formerly the capital of an ancient principality, but now subject to the Dutch; lat. 7° 40′ S., lon. 113° 48′ E., eighty-five miles E.S.E. from Surabhaya. This extensive district is comprehended within the jurisdiction of Probolingo, and consists of a fine flat table-land, but almost destitute of water, more especially in the portion adjoining Bangywangy. The population is consequently scanty. At the river Calatiyas, about fifteen

miles beyond the town of Panaroocan the carriage-road from Batavia terminates. This grand military highway measures 684 miles.—(*Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

PANAUR RIVER.—A river in the south of India, which has its source among the Nundydroog hills, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction, until it falls into the sea at Cudalore, after a course of about 250 miles, including the windings.

PANBAN.—A village with a choultry, on the island of Ramisseram, situated directly opposite to the main land, and the usual landing and embarking place of the pilgrims.—See RAMISSERAM and TUNITONG.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PANCA POINT. — A remarkable point in the island of Java, situated at the north-eastern extremity, at the mouth of the western entrance of the Straits of Madura. At this place Javanese and European pilots are stationed, who, as soon as vessels are discovered standing for the channel, go before to pilot them to Gressia and Surabhaya.—(*Tombe, &c.*)

PANCHBERARAH.—A place in the province of Cashmere, a dependency of Uneej, which had formerly been a large city, and to which, in the Ayeen Acbery, Abul Fazel ascribes great sanctity.

PANDABAM GOURCHY.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, eighty-eight miles N.N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 5′ N., lon. 78° 24′ E.

PANCANSANE ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the south-eastern extremity of Celebes, about the fifth degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at fifty-two miles by sixteen miles, the average breadth. Part of this island is very low, flat, and covered with fine trees; in general it is also well peopled.

PANGARAN LAMBUNG.—A small Batta district in the island of Sumatra, inland from the bay of Tapanooly, which occupies a space bounded by a prolongation of the first and second range of mountains. It contains ten or twelve villages, averaging from 200 to 300 persons. The surface consists of hills of various dimensions, covered with wood, except in the vicinity of the villages, where spots are cleared for the cultivation of the sweet potatoe. Streams are abundant, and vegetation profuse. Camphor, gambir, and benzoin-trees are plentiful, and the country free from wild beasts.—(*Burton and Ward, &c.*)

PANGARAN.—A large village in the former Candian territories, in the island of Ceylon, thirty-eight miles S.E. from the city of Candy; lat. 7° 33′ N., lon. 81° 5′ E. This place stands on the banks of the river Mahavaligunga, which passes Candy, and is here about 150 yards broad. Pangaran is chiefly inhabited by Lubbies, a trading class of Mahomedans, thus named at Madras.—(*Major Johnston, &c.*)

PANGCOTARAN.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archipelago, about ten miles long by four, the average breadth; lat. 6° 9′ N., lon. 120° 30′ E. This island is an entire bed of coral, with scarcely any appearance of soil; yet it abounds with coco-nut trees, which are tall and fruitful, and of great use to the inhabitants, as it is destitute of good fresh water. Notwithstanding this important deficiency, the island is described as having plenty of cattle, goats, and fowls, and tolerably well inhabited. It was formerly settled by the Spaniards, who left here a large breed of hogs. Some of the chief persons' houses are built on four trees, lopped off for posts; and perhaps something of this kind may have given rise to the reports of people living on trees, as the trunks continue to vegetate and send forth branches.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

PANIANY.—A seaport town on the Malabar coast, thirty-six miles S. by E. from Calicut; lat. 10° 45′ N., lon. 75° 38′ E. In A.D. 1800 this place contained 500 houses, belonging to traders, forty mosques, and at least 1,000 huts. The last are inhabited

by fishermen, formerly a low caste of Hindoos, named Mucuas, who have all embraced the faith of Mahomed. The mouth of the Paniany river is shut by a bar, which admits only trading boats, such as pattamars, capable of carrying 50,000 coco-nuts, or 500 Bengal bags of rice. About seventy years ago the Moplay merchants here were very rich, and possessed vessels that sailed to Surat, Mocha, Madras, and Bengal; but the oppressions and extortions of Tippoo reduced them to great poverty. The exports from hence are teak-wood, coco-nuts, iron, rice; the chief imports, wheat, pulse, sugar, Jagory salt, cut (terra Japonica), and spices.

Paniany is the residence of the tangul, or high-priest of the Moplays, who asserts his descent from Ali and Fatima, the daughter of Mahomed. Although a Mussulman by religion, the tangul's sister's son, according to the custom of Malabar, is considered the heir to this hereditary dignity. These people are called Moplayar on the Malabar coast, and Lubbaymar at Madras; but among themselves they acknowledge no other designation than that of Mussulmauns or Mahomedans. Being of Arabian extraction, they consider themselves of more honourable birth than the Tartar Mahomedans, who, as may be expected, hold a contrary opinion. The Arabians appear to have settled in this country soon after the promulgation of the faith of Mahomed, and have made numerous converts; yet in many families the Arab blood seems still uncontaminated. The Moplays use a written character peculiar to themselves, and totally different from the present Arabic, which language is known to very few besides the priests, and to them imperfectly.

The Moplays of Malabar are both traders and farmers; the Lubbies of Madras confine themselves to the first-mentioned profession. As traders they are a remarkably quiet, industrious people; but some of them in the interior having been encouraged by Tippoo in a most licentious attack on the lives, pers[illegible] and property of the Hindoos, became a set of fierce, blood-thirsty, bigotted ruffians, which disposition the British government had considerable difficulty in reforming. Prior to this the Moplays had no authority, except in the small division of Cananore, even over their own sect, but were entirely subject to the Hindoo princes in whose dominions they resided. Tippoo's code of laws was never known beyond the limits of Calicut. During that period of total anarchy the number of Moplays considerably increased, multitudes of Hindoos having been circumcised by force, and many of the lower orders converted. In religious matters the tangul is still the head of the sect, and the office continues hereditary in the female line. Mosques are numerous, and in each of them an imaum or moullah presides, nominated by the tangul, who usually bestows the office on the sister's son, the heir of the person that last held it.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

PANIPUT (*Panipata*).—A town in the province of Delhi, situated about fifty miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 22′ N., lon. 76° 51′ E. In its greatest extent it is four miles in circumference, and was formerly surrounded by a brick wall, which partly remains. It was formerly also a considerable commercial emporium, but suffered great detriment from the incessant troubles which for a century agitated the Delhi province. The imports are salt, grain, and cotton cloths; the surrounding country produces and exports coarse sugar.

At this place is the shrine of a Mahomedan saint of great repute, named Shereef ud Deen Abu ali Cullinder, whose death happened in the 724th year of the Hejira. To this shrine the present emperor of Delhi, Acber the Second, was carried while young by the unfortunate Shah Allum, who consecrated on the spot a lock of his hair to the saint interred below. This ceremony imposes the obligation of suffering the lock of hair to remain un-

touched until after the lapse of a certain period of time it can be cut off on the very spot where it was originally selected for consecration. The emperor is said to have the consummation of this rite much at heart, but as the pilgrimage would occasion a great expenditure, and create otherwise much confusion, he has hitherto been persuaded to postpone its performance.

Panipat is famous for having been the scene where two of the greatest battles ever fought in India took place, both decisive of the sway of Hindostan. The first was in A.D. 1525, between the army of Sultan Baber and that of the Patan emperor of Delhi, Ibrahim Lodi, in which the latter was slain and his army totally discomfited. With him the Patan dynasty of Lodi terminated, and the Mogul one of Timour commenced.

The second took place in 1761, between the combined Mahomedan army commanded by Ahmed Shah Abdalli, the sovereign of Cabul, and that of the Maharattas commanded by Sedasiva Bhow. The Mahomedan army consisted altogether of 42,000 horse and 38,000 foot, besides camels, and between seventy and eighty pieces of cannon. These were the regular troops, but the irregulars that accompanied them were sometimes more numerous. The Durranies of Cabul, who were the strength of the army, being about 29,000, were all men of great bodily vigour; their horses of the Turkish breed, and very hardy. The regulars of the Maharatta army consisted of 55,000 horse and 15,000 foot, with 200 pieces of cannon, and camel pieces and rockets without number. Besides the regular troops there were 15,000 Pindaries (plunderers), and the camp followers may be estimated at four times the number of the regulars.

The armies continued in front of each other from the 26th of October 1760 to the 7th of January 1761, during which interval many bloody skirmishes took place, which generally terminated in favour of the Durranies. At the date last-mentioned, the Maharatta army being reduced to great distress for want of supplies, the Bhow determined to quit his entrenchments and give battle. The conflict continued nearly equal from morning until noon, about which time Biswass Row, the Peshwa's son, a youth of seventeen, was mortally wounded, which appears to have decided the fate of the battle, as the Maharattas then fled in all directions, pursued by the victors, who gave no quarter in the heat of the pursuit.

Of all descriptions of men, women, and children, there were said to have been half a million in the Maharatta camp, of whom the greatest part were killed or taken prisoners, and of those who escaped from the field of battle many were destroyed by the zemindars. About 40,000 prisoners were taken alive; those who fell into the hands of the Durranies were mostly murdered by them, alleging in jest as an excuse that when they left their own country their mothers, sisters, and wives desired that when they defeated the unbelievers they would kill a few of them on their account, that they also might possess merit in the sight of the prophet.

The commander-in-chief of the Maharattas, Sedasiva Bhow, was probably killed in the battle, but this fact was never to a certainty established. Many years afterwards, about 1779, a person appeared at Benares who said he was the Bhow, and some Maharattas acknowledged his claim, while others treated him (and probably with justice) as an impostor.—(*Asiatic Researches, Ferishta, G. Thomas, Archibald Seton, &c.*)

PANJANG (*or Pulo Panjung*).—An island on the west coast of the Malay peninsula, intersected by the eighth degree of north latitude, twenty miles in length by about four, the average breadth. It lies close to Junkceylon, due south, and in every respect resembles that island or isthmus.

PANJIM.—A handsome and well-built Portuguese town in the province

of Bejapoor, situated on the island of Goa, five miles below the ancient city of that name. This place is now the seat of business, the residence of the viceroy, and of the principal Portuguese inhabitants, and may be considered, in fact, to have superseded ancient Goa as the metropolis of the settlement. The lower classes are almost universally native Christians, and so cheap has shelter become in the present deserted state of the country, that there are no mean native huts, every man, however low his condition being housed under a roof of tile, and within walls of stone—a predicament no where else to be found in India. Instead of a single pent roof or terrace covering the whole building, there is a four-sided peaked tile roof to each apartment, so that the top of every house presents a cluster of pyramids. Venetian blinds are not used, the verandas being shut in by immense sashes, consisting of little panes, each about two inches and a half square, and composed of oyster-shells in the place of glass. These moderate a little the intensity of the sun's rays, but contribute with other circumstances to render the interior exceedingly hot.

A magnificent terrace or causeway, three miles in length, connects Panjim with the little town of St. Pedro. This great work was executed about a century and a half ago by the Jesuits, and remains still in the most perfect preservation. It serves to shut out the sea from an extensive tract to the south, partly in cultivation, and partly occupied by pits for the manufacture of salt from the sea-water admitted by means of sluices. The most common vehicle of conveyance here is a light boat, with a canopy of painted canvas, somewhat after the fashion of a Venetian gondola. On shore, the substitute for a palanquin is a sort of hammock slung on a pole, with a sheet of pent-house awning, carried on the heads of two porters. A variety of the mango-tree reared in this neighbourhood, and long celebrated under the name of the Alphonso mangoe, rivals in flavour the renowned mangoe of Mazagong, on the island of Bombay.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PANKOUR.—A small island situated in the direct route of ships passing through the straits of Malacca, near the entrance of the Perak river; lat. 4° 16′ N., lon. 100° 58′ E. In 1819 this island was offered to the governor of Prince of Wales' Island by the captain of a country ship, who said it had been given to him by the deceased raja of Perak; but it appearing that the raja's intellects were unsound at the time of the reputed grant, and that the gift had never been sanctioned by the constitutional authorities, the offer was declined. Pankour produces canes, rattans, trees yielding oil, dammer, and crooked timber. The ruins of a Dutch fort, dated 1743, are still visible. —(*Public MS. Documents, Anderson, &c.*)

PANNAH (*Panna*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated above the ghauts on a barren rocky plain, thirty-seven miles S.E. from Chatterpoor, and fifteen from Adjyghur; lat. 24° 45′ N., lon. 80° 13′ E. It is still an extensive place, and contains several dwelling-houses built of stone, many handsome temples, in one of which is an idol reported to have a diamond eye of immense value and great brilliancy. There are also several large tanks or lakes of water, abounding with geese, ducks, and other aquatic birds; and on the margin of the largest are still to be seen the ruins of a palace in which Raja Chuttersal resided when sovereign of Bundelcund.

In approaching Pannah from Banda, the table-land above the ascent is more level and free from rocks than that in the Shahabad district; but it exhibits no signs of cultivation, even within three miles of Pannah. The whole plain on the table-land around Pannah, wherever it happens to be of a gravelly nature, is said to produce diamonds. In most parts the soil is very red, in others it has only

a slight tinge of that colour, and is of a dark brown. This soil is from two to eight cubits deep, and where diamonds are found contains many small pebbles, with which the diamonds are found intermixed, but never adhering. The deep mines which are the most productive are opened about a month after the conclusion of the rains, from which period until the next rainy season when they fill again, the miners are employed in carrying out the diamond soil, here named kuckroo. The workmen on the spot assert that the generation of diamonds is always going forward; that they have just as much chance of success in searching earth that has been fourteen or fifteen years unexamined, as in digging what has never been disturbed. A similar notion with respect to tin prevails among the operative stream miners in Cornwall.

The Pannah diamonds are generally thought thin and flat, and fit only for the table diamonds worn by natives of rank, who prefer them to brilliants; but Captain Bulkley asserts that the table sort bear but a small proportion to the whole. In 1820, in prosecuting a mining experiment on a small scale, that officer procured 203 diamonds, valued at 2,000 rupees; the expenses incurred amounted to 900 rupees. Very large diamonds still continue to be found in the Pannah mines; but all above ten carats are claimed by the raja, who in the above year had procured one valued at £400 sterling. They lose remarkably little by cutting, scarcely more than a fifth; indeed a large proportion, having no opaque coat, may be worn in the condition in which they are found.

These diamond mines are supposed to have been the Panassa of Ptolemy. During the reign of Acber they were estimated at eight lacks of rupees annually, and they also formed a considerable source of public revenue and mercantile profit during the sway of the native Bondela chiefs. Part of the mines belong to the British government, but the larger proportion to Raja Bukht Balla of Pannah, which being an independent principality, the British government in 1820 declined the working of them as a monopoly, and relinquished whatever profit might arise from their own share to the native chiefs in the vicinity. In 1824 a manager was appointed to conduct the affairs of Pannah, which had suffered grievously from the mismanagement of Raja Kishore Singh, the reigning chief.—(*F. Buchanan, Captain Bulkley, &c.*)

PANOMPIN.—A town belonging to the Cochin Chinese, situated on a river of the same name, and said to be the modern capital of Cambodia. It has been long frequented by Europeans, and is now the only considerable port in the gulf of Siam which affords direct access to the interior of Cambodia.

PANOWLEE.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, situated on the Poona river, eleven miles N.W. from the city of Poona. Here is one of the bungalows erected by government for the accommodation of travellers on the route from Bombay to Poona.

PANTER ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from that of Lomblem by the straits of Aloo, and situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by twelve the average breadth.

PANTURA.—A village in Ceylon, situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, twenty miles south from Columbo: lat. 6° 43′ N., lon. 79° 49′ E.

PANWELL.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the river Pan, to which the tide flows up several miles from the harbour; but during the prevalence of easterly winds, the passage to Bombay, from which it is distant twenty-one miles E., is tedious and uncertain; lat. 18° 59′ N., lon. 73° 15 E. This place is extensive, and being eligibly situated for

business, carries on a considerable commerce, although it stands in the midst of a salt morass. Panwell is the grand ferry to Bombay, and contains the rare convenience of an inn, although not of the first quality.

PANY ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, situated due south of Luzon, between the 122d and 123d degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at 110 miles, by thirty-eight miles the average breadth.

This island, when viewed from the sea, exhibits numerous villages on the declivity of the hills, the houses of which are well built, and arranged with great regularity. The sea-coast abounds with coco-nut trees; and in the interior are plenty of wild game, such as deer, hogs, and buffaloes. Cattle and horses are said to be so plentiful as not to be appropriated, but allowed to range at pleasure. The air of the island is unhealthy, on account of the morasses, and the thinness of the cultivation. Like most unexplored countries, it has the reputation of containing mines of silver and gold.

The principal establishments of the Spaniards on this island are at Ilo-ilo and Antigua, on which coast there is good anchorage. Antigua stands in lat. 10° 42′ N., where the anchorage is in ten fathoms at a considerable distance from the shore. Vessels cannot anchor here in November, December, and January, without considerable risk, for it is then the winds from the S.W. and W. prevail. Water is to be had here from a rivulet and also from a river, which serves as a ditch to the fort, up which boats may proceed a considerable way, but the water is brackish even during neap tides. Antigua, like other Spanish settlements, is extremely ill governed and defended, vessels being plundered in the harbour by pirates, who carry off the crews into slavery. The fort is built of wood, and garrisoned by about twenty country Christians. The inhabitants of Pany are said to be more industrious than those of Luzon, and manufacture from cotton, and from the fibres of another plant, handkerchiefs and cloths, which they wear and export to the neighbouring islands. A coloured cloth, made from a plant raised on this island, is much worn by the females of Manilla.—(*Sonnerat, Mears, &c.*)

PAPHAEK.—A considerable town in the interior of Siam, up the river Meklong, above Bankok, which in 1826 was estimated to contain 8,000 inhabitants. It is also named Kanbouri, and in 1766 was destroyed by the Siamese.—(*Leal, &c.*)

PAPPAL.—A district on the north-eastern coast of Borneo, the limits of which are the Sampanmangio on the north, and the Keemanees river in lat. 5° 30′ N. The general productions of this coast are sago, rice, betel-nut, coco-nut oil, camphor, wax, some pepper, and coarse cinnamon. The country is populous, particularly the interior, which is inhabited by Idaan, or aborigines, as are also a few places on the sea-coast.

This part of Borneo is well supplied with moisture, and has the additional convenience of many rivers navigable for boats, and some even for large vessels. The river Tawarran leads to the lake of Keeney baloo, from whence its mouth is from ten to fifteen miles distant, and is accessible by boats. Tampasook, Abai, Loobook, and Amboony are small rivers in the Pappal district, the borders of which are inhabited by Mahomedans. The harbours and rivers of Abai are superior to any between Sampanmangio and Portgaya, and it is the only place where vessels can have shelter from westerly winds. The country here abounds with grain, and if cultivated might be made to produce considerable quantities of pepper and cinnamon.

The banks of the river Tawarran are inhabited chiefly by Idaan, among whom a few Chinese are settled; those of the Mancaboony are inhabited by Mahomedans and well settled. To the eastward lie Port Gaya

and some other islands, which with the shoals form a harbour for small vessels. The banks of the Batuan, Inanam, Mangatal, Poolatan, and Kinaroot rivers are inhabited by Mahomedans, and produce sago, rice, betel-nut, cinnamon, and coco-nut oil.

The next river to the southward is Pangalat, which is also peopled by Mahomedans, and yields camphor and other articles. Keemanees is the last river of what was the Sooloo dominions in this quarter of Borneo. The inhabitants are Idaan, and carry on an extensive traffic in their own prows to Java, &c. The country besides a considerable quantity of coarse cinnamon and other commodities, produces tenjoo, which is the gum of a certain tree, found also in Palawan and Magindanao.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

PAPRA.—A Siamese town in the province of Junkceylon, which was formerly a flourishing settlement, but was almost totally destroyed during the wars between the Burmese and Siamese; lat. 8° 8′ N., lon. 98°15′ E.

PAPRONE.—A town in the province of Malwa, division of Keecheewara; lat. 24° 40′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia.

PAPUA.

Tannah Papua, or Papua land.

The Papuan Isles extend from the south end of Gilolo, and the north end of Ceram, to the west end of Papua or New Guinea; the exact dimensions of which have not to this day been ascertained; nor is it certain that it is not a cluster of large islands, instead of one of enormous size. If the latter, its longitudinal extent is so great, that it appears to appertain partly to the Asiatic isles and partly to those of the Pacific, the inhabitants of the two extremities exhibiting considerable generical differences. The western is appropriated to the remarkable race of Oriental negroes, while the natives of the eastern approximate to the yellow complexioned, long-haired natives of the South Sea islands.

Like Celebes, Gilolo, and other Eastern isles, Papua is indented with such deep bays that it resembles a chain of peninsulas, so near does the sea approach on each side, and it is only separated from New Holland by Torres Straits, re-discovered in modern times by Capt. Flinders in the Investigator. Viewed from the sea, the coast of Papua rises gradually from the shore to hills of considerable elevation; but no mountains of remarkable height have as yet been seen, such as Mount Ophir in Sumatra. The whole being covered with palm trees and timber of large size, the soil may be presumed to be naturally fertile, but it has yet been little disturbed by cultivation. The coco-nut tree and two species of the bread-fruit tree are found here, and also pine-apples and plantains. The Horaforas of the interior practice gardening, and some sort of agriculture, as they supply the trading Papuas on the sea-coast with food, in exchange for axes, knives, and other kinds of coarse cutlery. Nutmeg trees grow here in a wild state, but they are known not to be of the proper quality as a spice. It is said there are no quadrupeds on Papua except dogs, wild cats, and hogs, and that to the east of Gilolo no horned animal of any sort is to be found. The woods abound with wild hogs, which the natives kill with spears and bows and arrows. With the latter they are particularly dexterous, and discharge arrows six feet long with bows made of bamboo, having a string of split rattan. Gold is known to exist in this immense island, and there is room to conjecture, in considerable abundance.

On the north-west coast of this island, which has been most frequently visited by Europeans, the natives build their houses on posts fixed several yards below low-water mark, from which there is a long stage to the land, and also another towards the sea, on which they haul up their canoes. This semi-aquatic mode of

dwelling is intended] to provide against attacks both by sea and land; if the assault be from the first, they take to the woods, if from the last they launch their canoes and sail away. The furniture of these cabins consist of a mat or two, a fire-place, a china plate or basin, and some sago flour. The females make earthen pots with clay, which they bake with dry grass or light brush-wood.

The Papuas on this part of the coast are so far advanced in civilization as perfectly to understand the nature of traffic, which they carry on with the Buggesses and Chinese, but more particularly the latter, from whom they purchase their iron tools, blue and red baftaes, axes, knives, China beads, plates, and basins. In exchange, the Chinese carry back missoy bark, slaves, ambergris, sea-slug, tortoise-shell, small pearls, black and red loories, birds of paradise, and many other species of dead birds, which the Papuas have a particular method of dressing. Formerly the Dutch government did not allow the burghers at Ternate to trade to the coast of New Guinea for missoy bark, the powder of which is much used by the Japanese for rubbing their bodies, the discreet Chinese only being allowed to prosecute this species of commerce.

In the Malay peninsula, Luzon, Borneo, and in most of the larger islands of the Eastern seas, there are occasionally found in the mountains a scattered race of blacks entirely distinct from the rest of the population. A more robust people of the same race are said to occupy Papua and some of the adjacent islands, but their country has been so little frequented that they still remain almost unknown. The origin of this woolly-headed race appears now beyond the reach of human investigation, for in many respects they differ radically from the African negro, more especially in the following particulars. The Papuan's skin is of a lighter colour than that of the African; the woolly hair grows in small tufts, and each hair has a spiral twist. The forehead rises higher, and the hind head is not so much cut off. The nose projects from the face; the upper lip is longer and more prominent. The lower lip projects forward from the lower jaw to such an extent, that the chin forms no part of the face, the lower part of which is formed by the mouth. The buttocks are so much lower than in the negro, as to form a striking mark of distinction, but the calf of the leg is as high as in the negro.

On the north-west coast of Papua, which is the only quarter we are acquainted with, the natives wear their hair bushed round their heads to the circumference of two and a half and three feet, and to make it more extensive, comb it out horizontally from their heads, occasionally adorning it with feathers. From the short, close, woolly nature of an African negro's hair, it could not be dressed exactly in this manner, as no skill could make it stick out so far from their heads. The men wear a thin stuff made from the fibres of the coconut tree, tied round their middle and between their legs, fixing it up behind. The females in general wear blue Surat cloths put on in the same manner as the men; the children, until the age of puberty, go entirely naked. Both sexes are fond of glass and china beads, which they wear round the wrist. Capt. Forrest says he did not see any gold ornaments among the Papuas; but that they declared it was found in their hills. As among all barbarous tribes, the women appear to be the laborious class. As before-mentioned, they make a sort of earthenware of clay, and mats of the palm trees.

Some of the horaforas of the interior are said to have long hair, but this appears doubtful, at least so far as applies to the western extremity, where all the inhabitants yet seen by voyagers presented the expanded mop head of the oriental negro. The people of the more eastern have the character of being extremely ferocious, and prone to war and carnage. It is said, however, that they

and some other islands, which with the shoals form a harbour for small vessels. The banks of the Batuan, Inanam, Mangatal, Poolatan, and Kinaroot rivers are inhabited by Mahomedans, and produce sago, rice, betel-nut, cinnamon, and coco-nut oil.

The next river to the southward is Pangalat, which is also peopled by Mahomedans, and yields camphor and other articles. Keemanees is the last river of what was the Sooloo dominions in this quarter of Borneo. The inhabitants are Idaan, and carry on an extensive traffic in their own prows to Java, &c. The country besides a considerable quantity of coarse cinnamon and other commodities, produces tenjoo, which is the gum of a certain tree, found also in Palawan and Magindanao.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

PAPRA.—A Siamese town in the province of Junkceylon, which was formerly a flourishing settlement, but was almost totally destroyed during the wars between the Burmese and Siamese; lat. 8° 8′ N., lon. 98°15′ E.

PATRONE.—A town in the province of Malwa, division of Keechcewara; lat. 24° 40′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia.

PAPUA.

Tannah Papua, or Papua land.

The Papuan Isles extend from the south end of Gilolo, and the north end of Ceram, to the west end of Papua or New Guinea; the exact dimensions of which have not to this day been ascertained; nor is it certain that it is not a cluster of large islands, instead of one of enormous size. If the latter, its longitudinal extent is so great, that it appears to appertain partly to the Asiatic isles and partly to those of the Pacific, the inhabitants of the two extremities exhibiting considerable generical differences. The western is appropriated to the remarkable race of Oriental negroes, while the natives of the eastern approximate to the yellow complexioned, long-haired natives of the South Sea islands.

Like Celebes, Gilolo, and other Eastern isles, Papua is indented with such deep bays that it resembles a chain of peninsulas, so near does the sea approach on each side, and it is only separated from New Holland by Torres Straits, re-discovered in modern times by Capt. Flinders in the Investigator. Viewed from the sea, the coast of Papua rises gradually from the shore to hills of considerable elevation; but no mountains of remarkable height have as yet been seen, such as Mount Ophir in Sumatra. The whole being covered with palm trees and timber of large size, the soil may be presumed to be naturally fertile, but it has yet been little disturbed by cultivation. The coco-nut tree and two species of the bread-fruit tree are found here, and also pine-apples and plantains. The Haraforas of the interior practice gardening, and some sort of agriculture, as they supply the trading Papuas on the sea-coast with food, in exchange for axes, knives, and other kinds of coarse cutlery. Nutmeg trees grow here in a wild state, but they are known not to be of the proper quality as a spice. It is said there are no quadrupeds on Papua except dogs, wild cats, and hogs, and that to the east of Gilolo no horned animal of any sort is to be found. The woods abound with wild hogs, which the natives kill with spears and bows and arrows. With the latter they are particularly dexterous, and discharge arrows six feet long with bows made of bamboo, having a string of split rattan. Gold is known to exist in this immense island, and, there is room to conjecture, in considerable abundance.

On the north-west coast of this island, which has been most frequently visited by Europeans, the natives build their houses on posts fixed several yards below low-water mark, from which there is a long stage to the land, and also another towards the sea, on which they haul up their canoes. This semi-aquatic mode of

dwelling is intended] to provide against attacks both by sea and land; if the assault be from the first, they take to the woods, if from the last they launch their canoes and sail away. The furniture of these cabins consist of a mat or two, a fire-place, a china plate or basin, and some sago flour. The females make earthen pots with clay, which they bake with dry grass or light brush-wood.

The Papuas on this part of the coast are so far advanced in civilization as perfectly to understand the nature of traffic, which they carry on with the Buggesses and Chinese, but more particularly the latter, from whom they purchase their iron tools, blue and red baftaes, axes, knives, China beads, plates, and basins. In exchange, the Chinese carry back missoy bark, slaves, ambergris, sea-slug, tortoise-shell, small pearls, black and red loories, birds of paradise, and many other species of dead birds, which the Papuas have a particular method of dressing. Formerly the Dutch government did not allow the burghers at Ternate to trade to the coast of New Guinea for missoy bark, the powder of which is much used by the Japanese for rubbing their bodies, the discreet Chinese only being allowed to prosecute this species of commerce.

In the Malay peninsula, Luzon, Borneo, and in most of the larger islands of the Eastern seas, there are occasionally found in the mountains a scattered race of blacks entirely distinct from the rest of the population. A more robust people of the same race are said to occupy Papua and some of the adjacent islands, but their country has been so little frequented that they still remain almost unknown. The origin of this woolly-headed race appears now beyond the reach of human investigation, for in many respects they differ radically from the African negro, more especially in the following particulars. The Papuan's skin is of a lighter colour than that of the African; the woolly hair grows in small tufts, and each hair has a spiral twist. The forehead rises higher, and the hind head is not so much cut off. The nose projects from the face; the upper lip is longer and more prominent. The lower lip projects forward from the lower jaw to such an extent, that the chin forms no part of the face, the lower part of which is formed by the mouth. The buttocks are so much lower than in the negro, as to form a striking mark of distinction, but the calf of the leg is as high as in the negro.

On the north-west coast of Papua, which is the only quarter we are acquainted with, the natives wear their hair bushed round their heads to the circumference of two and a half and three feet, and to make it more extensive, comb it out horizontally from their heads, occasionally adorning it with feathers. From the short, close, woolly nature of an African negro's hair, it could not be dressed exactly in this manner, as no skill could make it stick out so far from their heads. The men wear a thin stuff made from the fibres of the coco-nut tree, tied round their middle and between their legs, fixing it up behind. The females in general wear blue Surat cloths put on in the same manner as the men; the children, until the age of puberty, go entirely naked. Both sexes are fond of glass and china beads, which they wear round the wrist. Capt. Forrest says he did not see any gold ornaments among the Papuas; but that they declared it was found in their hills. As among all barbarous tribes, the women appear to be the laborious class. As before-mentioned, they make a sort of earthenware of clay, and mats of the palm trees.

Some of the horaforas of the interior are said to have long hair, but this appears doubtful, at least so far as applies to the western extremity, where all the inhabitants yet seen by voyagers presented the expanded mop head of the oriental negro. The people of the more eastern have the character of being extremely ferocious, and prone to war and carnage. It is said, however, that they

deal honestly with the Chinese who trade with them, and advance them goods for several months before the returns are made.

The word Papua is a corruption of pua pua, the common term by which the brown complexioned tribes designate the whole negro race. It is said they term themselves Igoloté; by the Spaniards they are named Negrotos del Monte, from their colour and bushy hair. They appear to be a second race of aborigines in the Eastern isles, in several of which they are still to be found, and in all of which they appear at one time to have existed. In the more western of the Papuan isles some of their divisions have formed small savage states, and made some advances towards civilization; but the greater part, even with the example of more civilized races in their immediate vicinity, have betrayed no symptoms either of a taste or capacity for improvement, and they continue to enjoy their primitive nakedness, sleeping on trees, devoid of houses or clothing, subsisting on the spontaneous products of the forest, or the precarious success of their hunting and fishing excursions. The natives of the Andamans seem to be of this race, and also the black mountaineers of Malacca; but a considerable difference may be discovered in the bodily frames of these miserable wretches and the structure of the genuine Papuas. The former are a dwarfish, diminutive race, while the latter are robust and of a good stature, though still much inferior to the African negro in muscular power. The skin of the Papua, instead of being jet black like the African, is rather of a sooty colour. The language spoken by the negro races that inhabit the mountains of the Malay peninsula and islands has hardly one word in common with those of their brown complexioned neighbours, and besides which they differ so much from each other, that Malay interpreters are necessary to conduct the little intercourse that subsists between them.

The oriental negroes being much divided into small communities of families, little connected with each other, their language is broken into a multitude of dialects, which in process of time, by separation, accident, and oral corruption, have nearly lost all resemblance. The Malays of the peninsula consider the language of the blacks of the hills as a mere jargon, which can only be compared to the chattering of turkies and other large birds, and the Papuan dialects in many of the Eastern isles are generally viewed in the same light.

The inhabitants of the more western isles of the archipelago buy the Papuas for slaves, and the natives of the west coast of New Guinea make slaves of those of the east, in order to sell them to strangers. The eastern Papuas have the gristle between the nostrils pierced with tortoise-shell. About April and March, the Papuas of New Guinea and Salwatty formerly used to assemble in great numbers, and make war on Gilolo, Ceram, Amboyna, Ambloo, and as far west as Xulla Bessy.

The Arabians in their early voyages appear frequently to have encountered the Papuas, whom they describe in the most frightful colours, and constantly represent as cannibals. Tannah Papua was first discovered by Europeans in 1511, when it was visited by Antonio Ambreu. It was again visited by Don George de Menezes about 1530, when during a calm he was carried by a strong current to the eastward, until he arrived at a country inhabited by a race of people as black as negroes. He visited the king, and found him black like the others. The monsoon detained Menezes here during some months, during which he maintained a friendly intercourse with the natives, bartering for what he wanted; but they told him that in the interior there were men who eat human flesh and liked it mightily. What he subsequently says, however, throws a doubt on the whole; "here our people saw both men and women, white and fair as the Germans, and

on asking what those people were called they answered Papuas." Be that as it may, from the number of Portuguese names given to certain harbours, bays, and islands, on the north coast of New Guinea, it is evident that that nation in former times had much frequented this region; for its modern appellation of New Guinea it is indebted to the frizzled locks of its inhabitants.

When the Molucca islands were first discovered by the Portuguese, the interior was in most of them occupied by this race; but they have ever since been rapidly decreasing, and in most of the smaller islands have wholly disappeared. Captain Forrest endeavours to account for this decrease by attributing it to the numerous proselytes gained to the Mahomedan faith, on which event they either cut their hair off or smooth it down straight with a comb; other physical properties, however, would betray their lineage, and the success of the last-mentioned expedient (the comb) may reasonably be doubted. New diseases, vices, and wants, the consequence of a civilized vicinity, and the being driven from the sea-coast to the unwholesome jungle and swamps of the interior, supply more probable causes for the gradual disappearance of the Papuas, where the Malays have established themselves in any numbers.

With the natives of Papua the British have as yet had remarkably little intercourse. In 1778 it was visited by Capt. Thomas Forrest in a large Malay prow on a speculation of his own, and from his narrative more information has been derived respecting its natives than from all other sources put together. About 1796 it was partly surveyed by Capt. M'Cluer, who discovered the deep inlet named after him, which penetrates so far as almost to cut the island in two. In 1791, when the Panther, a Bombay cruizer, was off the coast of New Guinea, the natives decoyed the surgeon into their canoes and murdered him, after which they discharged a shower of arrows into the ship and wounded four of them, when they were dispersed by great guns and small arms. —(*Forrest, Sir Thomas Raffles, Crawfurd, Leyden, Sonnerat, &c.*)

PARACELS ISLES.—A group of shoals, reefs, and islands, lying off the coast of Cochin China, between the latitudes of 15° 46′ and 17° 6′ N. and 111° 2′ and 112° 42′ E. There are channels between them, and safe anchorage for vessels.

PARASSEN.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirteen miles S.S.W. from Calpee, lat. 25° 59′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E.

PARBUTTY (*Parvati, the wife of Siva*).—A river in the province of Malwa, which has its source south of Asta, and to its confluence with the Chumbul river describes a winding course of about 320 miles. During the rains the Parbutty swells so as not to be fordable.

PARCHUL.—A station in Tibet, just above Nako; lat. 31° 52′ N., lon. 78° 36′ E. In 1818, when passed by Messrs. Gerards, their barometers indicated the height to be 19,411 feet above the level of the sea; in 1820 two other barometers on the same spot shewed 1,467 inches. In 1821 a trigonometrical measurement made the extreme height 19,442 feet above the level of the sea, differing thirty-one feet from the barometrical measurement.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

PARKUNDY (*Parakhandi*).—A town in the province of Malwa, fifty-six miles north from Oojein; lat. 23° 58′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E.

PARKUR.—A district and town in the division of the Mooltan province named Chalchkaun; the last situated about lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 70° 40′ E. Directly north of Wagur in Cutch lies a desert Runn of thirty miles, beyond which is situated the district named Parkur, forming an insulated tract of country about forty miles in length, surrounded by the Runn, or else by the Thull, or sand-hill desert. It is accessible from Wagur by the

Runn above-mentioned; from Rahdunpoor on the east, across a branch of the Runn, thirty-five miles broad; from Marwar and the north through the great desert and a thinly-inhabited waste country; and from Sinde by a route directly through the desert.

The district of Parkur is a sandy plain, having a range of rocky hills near the eastern border, running north and south. This range is generally considered as one hill, is covered with jungle, has abundance of tank water and some arable land. On account of its insular situation and natural strength it is resorted to as an asylum in dangerous times. The soil of Parkur is sand upon a light clay, and produces scanty crops of bajeree and the poorer sorts of grain. Water is found in wells at the depth of forty cubits, but in general it becomes brackish during the hot months. Here are a few tanks, but the soil is such that the water cannot be retained throughout the year. To the west of the Callinjer hills there is a pool of water that lasts throughout the year, originating from springs at their base.

In Parkur there are about thirty-five villages, not more than half of which, in 1820, were inhabited. The capital is Parinuggur, for distinction named Nuggur, or the city, containing 500 wretched hovels; but it is said once to have contained 10,000 inhabitants. Along with the district it is comprehended in the Sinde dominions, the government of which levies a plough-tax and receives half the road-taxes, which formerly were considerable. Next to Parinuggur Weerawow is the largest place; but the whole country does not contain a substantial well-built house. Porphyry is the prevailing, if not the only rock in the Parkur district, and near the town of Parinuggur rises in a range of hills to the height of 1,000 feet, assuming in its rugged features a regularity equally singular and grotesque.

Some years ago the principal chieftain in this quarter was Poonjajee, of Weerawow, whose principal source of revenue sprung from a celebrated idol he possessed named Goreecha, from its originally having come from Gor Bangala, probably Gour in Bengal. It is carved of white marble, rather more than a cubit high, in a sitting posture, with his right foot placed on his left knee, his hands clasped, a precious stone of some sort fixed between his eye-brows, and two others in the sockets of his eyes. At a remote period, when Parinuggur flourished, it was inhabited by numerous bands of Banyans or Shrawaks (of the Jain religion), whose temples were famous for their elegance and sanctity, and resorted to by Shrawaks from every quarter, to perform their devotions at the shrines of Goreecha and Mandow Ray, who were considered as brothers. During the anarchy that followed the Mahomedan invasion, Mandow Ray fell into the hands of a body of Purmar Rajpoots, who removed him from Parkur to Mooter in Chalawar, where they built a magnificent temple for him, where he still resides. Goreecha had a harder fate, for during the disorder he was seized on by a Rajpoot family, and concealed in the sand-hills north-west of Parkur. Some years afterwards, when the influence of the Mahomedans of Sinde had declined, and the Soda Rajpoots gained the ascendancy, Goreecha emerged from his concealment, and the news of his safety attracted Shrawaks to worship from every region; for permission to do which the possessor of the image exacted a heavy fine, for his own emolument. Subsequent to this period the idol passed from hand to hand, and in 1809 was in the custody of Poonjajee of Weerawow, whose grandfather, Suttajee, stole him from a Rajpoot.

The pilgrimages to this white marble deity are made in caravans of many thousand persons, who have agents at Rahdunpoor, who settle beforehand with the different predatory chiefs for a safe conveyance to the spot where the image is to be seen. He is then dug out of the sand and placed

under a guard of Rajpoots, with drawn sabres, while the pilgrims perform their worship, and make offerings in proportion to their circumstances. These gifts are deposited in a large chest, and are afterwards divided between the Soda Raja and his attendants. Numerous fees are exacted during the ceremonies, and paid with extraordinary liberality by the votaries, who are on other occasions a most parsimonious race. After the customary ceremonies have continued for a few days the idol is privately removed, and parties of horsemen gallop off in every direction, one of whom has charge of the deity, whose real place of concealment is known only to a confidential few. In 1809 one party, or sungh as it is called, from Surat, amounted to 9,000, besides pilgrims expected from other quarters, the whole being computed at 70,000 persons, who were to assemble at Morwara, where the ceremonies were to be performed. The raja who possesses this stone frequently anticipates his revenue, and mortgages the approaching fees and offerings expected to be realized for so large a sum as a lack and a half of rupees. Besides the sums levied at the place of worship, all the adjacent towns and chiefs extort contributions from these pious devotees, who, owing to their immense numbers, suffer besides many hardships in this barren region.

The desert to the north of Parkur is occupied by migratory tribes, the principal of which are the Kozas, who have led a predatory life ever since the expulsion of the Abassy family from the throne of Sinde. These Kozas are a tribe of Baloochies, remarkable for their restless habits and courage, and nothing can more strongly prove the security of their present retreats in the desert than the fact that the Talpoories (the reigning dynasty of Sinde), although urged by every incentive of revenge and self-preservation, have not only been unable to extirpate the Kozas, but obliged to conciliate their forbearance. The occupations of this tribe are mostly pastoral, such as rearing cattle, camels, and horses; so that when a plundering harvest presents itself, the means of rapid transport are always at hand. In 1819, while a British detachment, under Col. Barclay, was marching past Parinuggur, the Kozas and inhabitants began to fire on the troops, and wounded several. The enemy was in consequence driven out of the town, and took refuge on the Callinjer mountain, where they were again attacked and almost extirpated, while during the confusion the town was completely sacked.—(*Macmurdo, Carnac, Capt. J. Stewart, &c.*)

PARNELLAH (*Parnalaya*). — A town and pergunnah in the province of Bejapoor, thirty-two miles west from Merritch; lat. 16° 47′ N., lon. 74° 17′ E. Powanghur (the fortress of the wind) is the capital fortification, and is a place of considerable strength.

On the 4th of April 1701 Sir Wm. Norris, the ambassador from the English East-India Company (while two separate and rival companies existed), arrived in Aurengzebe's camp, then stationed at Parnellah, and on the 28th went to the audience with vast pomp. He remained in the camp until the 5th of November following, endeavouring to accomplish the object of his mission, practising every Eastern intrigue, and liberal both of bribes and promises. He was, however, completely out-intrigued by the Mogul courtiers, and returned much disgusted and chagrined, the embassy from the beginning having cost the English East-India Company £80,000 sterling, an enormous sum at that period. Towards the conclusion of the negociation it was intimated to him by Aurengzebe, "that the English best knew if it were their interest to trade in his dominions, and that if the ambassador persisted in refusing the obligation required, he knew the road back to England by which he had come." The obligation required by Aurengzebe was, that the English East-India Company should make good all losses which his Mogul

subjects might sustain from pirates.—(*Bruce, Moor, &c.*)

PARO.—A town, with a district attached, in Bootan, eighteen miles south by west from Tassisudon; lat. 27° 43′ N., lon. 89° 32′ E. The governor of the district, whose jurisdiction is of the first importance in Bootan, has his residence here. Its limits extend from the frontiers of Tibet to the borders of Bengal, and thence to the boundaries of the Sikkim Raja. It also comprehends the low lands at the base of the Luckidwar mountains. The palace or castle of Paro is constructed, and the surrounding ground laid out, more with a view to strength and defence than almost any other place in Bootan. The valley of Paro exceeds that of Tassisudon by a mile. It lies N.W. and S.E., and is irregularly intersected by the river. This place is noted for the manufacture of images and the forging of arms, more particularly swords, daggers and the barbs of arrows.—(*Turner, &c.*)

PAROLA.—A large and well-built town in the province of Candeish, eighty-five miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor; lat. 20° 56′ N., lon. 75° 14′ E. In 1816 this place belonged to the Peshwa, but had been bestowed by him in jaghire. It was then in a flourishing condition, strongly fortified, and capable of making a protracted defence, if resolutely garrisoned.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

PARSEES. — See GUJERAT PROVINCE, and BOMBAY.

PARSONAUTH (*Parswanatha*). — Samet Sichara, called in Major Rennell's map Parsonauth, is situated among the hills bordering Bengal and Bahar, about 136 miles S.W. of Boglipoor. Its holiness is held in great reverence by the Jains, and it is said to be visited by pilgrims from the remotest parts of India. Parswa or Parswanatha, the twenty-third deified saint of the Jains, and who perhaps was the real founder of the sect, was born in the suburbs of Benares, and died aged 100 years, on Mount Sameya or Samet.—(*Colebrooke, &c.*)

PASAY.—A town in Sumatra, once the seat of government in this extremity of the island. It stands in a fine bay, where cattle, provisions, and grain are in plenty, with timber fit for large masts growing close to the shore.

PASSAGE ISLE.—A low sandy isle covered with trees, lying off the west coast of Sumatra, which here forms a deep bay named Bancongtu, where are several Malay ports; lat. 2° 31′ N., lon. 97° 55′ E.

PASSAMAN. — A small district in Sumatra, situated nearly under the equinoctial line, formerly under the dominion of Menancabow, but latterly subject to the Acheenese. Formerly this was a place of considerable trade, and besides a great export of pepper, received much fine gold from the mountains of the Rau country. The people of these mountains are said to be Battas converted to the Arabian faith, mixed with Malays. The greater part of the gold they now collect finds its way to the Siak river, and from thence to the south-eastern side of the island.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

PASSAROOAN.—A large district in the eastern quarter of the island of Java, which according to the census taken by the British government contained an area of 1,952 square miles, and 108,812 inhabitants, of which number 1,070 were Chinese. The town of Passarooan stands in lat. 7° 40′ S., lon. 112° 50′ E., thirty-two miles S.S.E. from Surabaya. It is intersected by a river, which is navigable for some leagues up the country, and crossed by a wooden bridge.—(*Raffles, Tombe, &c.*)

PASSIR.—A town and district on the east coast of Borneo; lat. 1° 57′ S., lon. 116° 10′ E. It stands about fifty miles up a river of the same name, which has sixteen reaches, and is joined by five other rivers. The town consists principally of 300 wooden houses, on the north side of

the river, mostly inhabited by Buggess merchants, the house and wooden fort of the raja are on the south side. The tide in Passir harbour rises nine feet, and runs a good way above the town. Over the bar at its mouth, there is two fathoms water with a muddy bottom. The river up at the town is fresh, but there are no water lanes of floating houses as at the town of Borneo.

The surrounding country is very unhealthy, as it lies in a flat for many miles, which is encircled by woods, and overflowed annually. When the waters retire, a muddy slime is left on the surface, upon which the shining of an almost vertical sun extracts thick fogs, which towards evening fall down in showers, with cold chilling winds off the land. Another circumstance that contributes to render the air unhealthy is the great number of frogs and other reptiles left in the mud, which being destroyed by the heat of the sun, occasion a most intolerable stench.

The dry season begins in April and continues to September, during which time the wind is easterly between the south coasts of Borneo and the island of Java; but from September to April the winds are westerly, attended by violent storms of thunder, lightning and rain. Exclusive of rice which is very plentiful. the exports are benzoin, musk, aloes, pepper, cassia, and long nutmegs; also various kinds of fruit, excellent mastic and other gums, particularly dragons'-blood; honey, gold, dust, and camphor are likewise procurable. The imports are opium, guns, muskets, pistols, gunpowder, lead in pigs and sheets, iron and steel in narrow bars, hangers, knives, scissors, and other cutlery, cloths, chintzes, carpets, spectacles, looking-glasses, spy-glasses, clock-work, &c.

The inhabitants of this quarter of Borneo are very fraudulent, and have cut off many ships by treachery. In their weights and measures they are unjust, and they make compositions to imitate some of the most valuable metals, more especially bars of gold, which is so artfully done that the imposition cannot be discovered unless the bars be cut quite through. At the mouth of the Passir river there are many Biajoos settled, who subsist by catching small shrimps, which after washing with fresh water, and exposing to a hot sun until putrid, they beat in a mortar to a paste (named balachong) with a considerable haut gout, but not unpalatable as an accompaniment to boiled rice or bread and butter. The language used at Passir is the Malay mixed with much Buggess.—(*Elmore, Sonnerat, Forrest, Stavorinus, Leyden, &c.*)

PASSUMAH.—A district in Sumatra, which nearly borders on Rejang southwards. This is an extensive, and comparatively a populous country, bounded on the north by that of Lamatang, and on the south-east by that of Lampong. It is governed by four Pangerans, who are independent of each other, but acknowledge a kind of sovereignty in the sultan of Palembang. In the low countries where the pepper-planters reside, the title of kalippa prevails, which is a corruption of the Arabic word khalifah, signifying a vicegerent. — (*Marsden, &c.*)

PATA ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archipelago, lying due south from the main island. It is inhabited, and contains a good stock of cattle. It also contains three pits of very white saltpetre earth, which yields one-eighth of saltpetre.

PATANAGOH.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated on the banks of the Irawady, directly opposite to Melloon; lat. 19° 46′ N., lon. 94° 53′ E., eighty miles N. by W. from Prome.

PATANY (*Patani*). — The largest and most populous state in the Malay peninsula, situated on the east coast, and extending to lat. 7° 20′ N.; the boundary between it and Siam Proper being a place named Tana. The territory of Patani is more fertile than that of the other Malayan states, and

yields a considerable quantity of rice, but little tin. Salt is procured in abundance. This petty state is completely subjected to, and indeed in part occupied by the Siamese, who assess it with a tax payable in grain and money. The English arrived at Patany so early as A.D. 1612, where they for some time had a factory which had been long abandoned, but since the colonizing of Singapoor the intercourse has been renewed. The town of Patany stands in lat. 7° N., lon. 101° 35′ E.—(*Singapoor Chronicle &c.*)

PATATAN.—A small town on the north-west coast of Borneo, situated on a river of the same name, which lies to the south of Pulo Gaya, and has a smooth and shallow bar. The town stands three or four miles up the river, and contains about 100 houses fronting the water. Above the town are many pepper gardens, belonging to the Chinese. Further down the coast is Papal river; the banks of which are so crowded with coco-nut trees that during the floods many nuts are carried out to sea. Lat. 5° 50′ S., lon. 116° 5′ E.

PATERNOSTER ISLES.—A great number of small rocky isles in the Eastern seas, surrounded by numerous shoals, which render the navigation extremely dangerous. They are situated about the 118th degree of east longitude, and the 7th of south latitude.

PATGONG.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, thirty-eight miles N.N.W. from the town of Rungpoor; lat. 26° 18′ N., lon. 88°55′ E.

PATHAEL.—A district in the province of Beeder, situated to the north of the Godavery river, and intersected by many streams flowing from the north into the channel of that river. By Abul Fazel, in A.D. 1582, it is described as follows:—"Circar Pahtery, containing eighteen mahals, revenue 80,705,954 dams; Seyurghal 11,580,594 dams." Remote as the period is when the above details were given we have nothing more recent to offer, the tract remaining nearly a blank in the best maps. The town of Pathree stands in lat. 19° 19′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E., thirty-one miles N.W. from Nandere.

PATHIN.—A village on the west side of the gulf of Siam, which in 1826 contained about 200 inhabitants, mostly fishermen. It stands about lat. 11°11′ N.

PATINOOR.—A town in the Carnatic province, division of Marawa, 130 miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 40′ N., lon. 78° 38′ E.

PATN.—See LALITA PATAN.

PATNA (*Padmavati*).—A large city in the province of Bahar, of which it is the modern capital; lat. 25° 37′ N., lon. 85° 15′ E. This place is situated on the south side of the Ganges, which is here five miles wide during the rainy season, and the eastern limits scarcely discernible. About the extremity of the suburbs at Jaffier Khan's garden, the Ganges separates into two branches, which surround a very large island, divided into two unequal portions, and about nine miles in length. The river here taking a bend to the south, the branch that goes to the east of this island is by far the largest, but boats of any size can at all seasons pass through the western channel between the island and Phataha. This magnificent stream does not here perceptibly increase until the Dusahara, which happens on the tenth day of the moon, in the month of Jaishta, which is, in fact, about the commencement of the periodical rains.

It is difficult to settle the exact boundaries of Patna, for to exclude all beyond the walls would reduce it to a trifle, while the suburbs are built in a very straggling, ill-defined manner. Including the latter, and Jaffier Khan's garden, it comprehends an extent of nine miles along the banks of the Ganges. The width from the borders of the river is on an average two miles, but some part of

the channel of the Ganges, and of the islands opposite to the city, must also be considered as belonging to this jurisdiction; so that on the whole an extent of twenty square miles may be allowed. Within the walls Patna is rather more than one and a half miles from east to west, and three-fourths of a mile from north to south, the whole exceedingly closely built. Many houses are built of brick, more of mud with tiled roofs, but few are thached. There is one tolerably wide street that reaches from the eastern to the western gate; but every other passage is narrow, crooked, and irregular. During the heats of spring the dust is beyond idea, and in the rains every place is covered with mud. East of the city is a very large suburb called Marusgunge, which contains many well built storehouses, but of such combustible materials that the whole are usually burned to the ground once in five or six years, sometimes oftener. Above the town is a long narrow suburb, through which the European houses are scattered, chiefly along the banks of the river; but notwithstanding that Patna is one of the chief European settlements in India, the seat of a court of appeal and circuit, of a city-judge and magistrate, of a collector, commercial resident, opium agent, and provincial battalion, the number of European houses and settlers is surprisingly few.

Patna was formerly fortified after the Hindostany manner, with a wall and small ditch, but these are now in the last stage of decay, and the gates tottering to their base. Neither are the bridges in a much better condition, being mostly in a ruinous state; the one over the west ditch was repaired by Mr. David Colvin at his own expense. The gates at the east and west ends of Patna are of no use, as the ramparts are demolished, and from their dilapidated and dangerous condition in 1801 were a disgrace to the city. Many years ago the Company erected here a depôt to contain rice, consisting of a brick building in the shape of a bee-hive, with two winding staircases on the outside, which have been ascended on horseback. By means of these stairs it was intended that the grain should be poured in at the top, there being a small door at the bottom to take it out. The walls at the bottom, although twenty-one feet thick, have given way, a circumstance of very little consequence, as were it filled (which it never was) it would not contain one day's consumption for the province. It is now used as a depôt for military stores, and is usually visited by strangers on account of the echo, which is remarkably perfect.

It is a common idea among the natives that the fort was built by Azim Ushaun the grandson of Aurungzebe, and that Pataliputra had been destroyed before that prince arrived. It appears from history, that in A.D. 1266 Patali had become a den of robbers, but there is nothing relating to the fort until 1611, when a convention of Afghan chiefs assembled at the place, which was then the capital of Bahar. At this period the city was not only fortified, but had within it a palace where the soubah dar resided. The inscription on the gate of the fort attributes its erection to a Feroze Jung Khan. It is alleged, that until the Maharatta invasion, the city walls contained all the inhabitants, and that its subsequent enlargement and prosperity were owing to the European commercial factories belonging to the English, Dutch, French, and Danes, who traded to a great extent, especially in cotton-cloth. This trade has greatly declined, and although those of opium, nitre, and indigo have increased, yet the town adjacent to the factories has rather fallen away. The city on the whole has, notwithstanding, been greatly augmented, and the value of the ground within it, on account of the small quantity in the market, more than doubled within the last twenty years.

The chief Mahomedan place of

worship is the monument of Shah Arzani, about the middle of the western suburb. He died here in the year of the Hijera 1032, and his shrine is frequented both by Mahomedans and Hindoos. It is not customary with the Mahomedans of Bengal and Bahar to meet in their mosques, as Europeans do in their churches, to have public prayers and to hear their sacred books expounded. The only remarkable places with the followers of the Brahmins, are the temples of the great and little Patana Devi, or Patan eswari, both signifying goddess of Patna. The image of this goddess in 1811 was a male figure, and appeared to be a representation of Gautama, with two of his disciples, as is usual in Ava. The Seiks or followers of Nanoc have at Patna a place of worship of great repute. It is called Hari Mandir, and owes its celebrity to its having been the birth-place of Govind Singh, the last great teacher of the sect. The Mandir itself is of little consequence, but it is surrounded by buildings for the accommodation of the proprietors.

In the middle of the city the Catholics have a church, in 1811 the best looking in the place, although the flock only consisted of about twenty families of native Portuguese. Near to it is the common grave of the British who were treacherously murdered, in 1763, by order of Meer Cossim, before his final overthrow. This massacre was perpetrated by the German adventurer Somro (Summers), whose widow still makes a figure in Upper Hindostan, and immediately afterwards the city was captured by the army under Major Adams. The grave is covered with an uncouth pillar, partly of stone and partly of brick, without inscription. There are many mosques here, but none large. Some of them are now let by their owners as warehouses, especially the handsomest, built entirely of stone; and although the proprietor has thus debased his mosque, he persevered strenuously in daily calling the faithful to prayer.

In this vicinity and near Dinapoor, potatoes are cultivated to a great extent. The large ones are exported to various parts for the use of Europeans, and the smaller ones are consumed by the natives. About Gaya also there are large plantations of potatoes, and the quantity used by the natives is considerable. They are never eaten as a substitute for grain, but are dressed merely as curry, to give a seasoning to rice and cakes, and they are considered as unwholesome. They require to be watered, and are manured with dung and ashes. The same field usually gives potatoes every year, and in the intervals between the crops of this root, it gives one of vegetables and another of maize. Such land is of a good soil, and lets for £3 per acre. Most of the common European vegetables, such as cabbage, cauliflower, lettuce, and turnips, have been introduced by Europeans, and thrive uncommonly well, and are now eaten by Mahomedans and the Hindoo castes that use garlic and onions, but all Brahmins reject them as impure. Most of the European vegetables live only during the cold season, but the artichoke is plenty in the heats of spring. The common vegetables thrive so well here, that the seed is preserved, and sent to other parts of India, where the climate is less favourable.

Those who extract essences have several flower gardens at Patna and Bar. At the former two or three persons have rose-gardens, containing from one-fifth to one-third of an acre. The rose which is cultivated in these gardens is said to have originally come from Bussorah, and at Patna is called by that name; but in Bengal it is called the Patna rose. It is propagated by cuttings in the rainy season, and flowers from the middle of February to the middle of May, and during the dry season must be watered. The flowers, which are rather smaller than those of Europe, sell to the distillers at from 1,000 to 4,000 per rupee, and are allowed to expand fully before they are sold. At Bar, those who make essences, use almost entirely the chambeli,

which botanists call the jasminum grandiflorum. The whole extent of the flower-gardens is said to be only seventeen acres.

Such are the vicissitudes of Indian cities, that Patna may now claim precedence of Delhi and Agra, both as to size and population. According to Dr. Francis Buchanan, in 1811 it was reckoned to contain 52,000 houses; of which 7,117 were said to be built of brick; 11,639 of two stories, with mud walls and tiled roofs; 22,188 mud-walled huts covered with tiles, and the remainder mud-walled huts covered with thatch. If the investigations of the police officers may be relied on, six persons may with safety be allowed to each house, which would give a total population of 312,000; besides which there is a considerable floating population, consisting of sepoys, camp-followers, boatmen, &c. Of the number abovementioned 97,000 were supposed to be Mahomedans, and 214,500 Hindoos. The extent of surface composing the small district attached to the city of Patna comprehends 403 square miles, and in 1811 the aggregate population of the city and district was estimated at 199,745 Mahomedans and 409,425 Hindoos; total 609,270 persons. There are not any regular schools or seminaries in which the Hindoo or Mahomedan law is taught, students in these branches of knowledge being instructed by private tutors, and it was remarked by the magistrates in 1801, that no new religious buildings of any sort were constructing, while the old ones were going rapidly to decay.

In 1811 there were twenty-four bankers at Patna, who discounted all bills payable either there, or at Calcutta, Benares, or Moorshedabad. Some of them had also agents at Lucknow and Dacca; one had an agent at Nepaul, and the house of Juggeth Seth had agents at Bombay and Madras, and at all large towns under British protection; but prior to the above date they had withdrawn their factories from places subject to independent native powers. Besides money transactions, some of them trade in European woollen cloths, jewels, foreign specimens, metals imported by sea, and the fine kinds of cloth of cotton, silk, and lace. Cash can always be procured here for Calcutta bank-notes, sometimes without discount, and never more than one per cent. In 1811, gold had almost wholly disappeared, although it had been the common currency, and cowries were scarcely current; the only small coinage were copper pieces, of which fifty-six passed for a rupee. A large quantity of saltpetre is annually despatched from hence to Calcutta for export and internal consumption. The Patna division of the court of appeal and circuit comprehends the following districts; *viz.* 1. Ramghur; 2. Bahar; 3. Tirhoot; 4. Sarun; 5. Shahabad; 6. the city of Patna. In 1813 the police of the latter was reported by the superintendent to be in a very inefficient state, the large islands in the vicinity covered with grass jungle affording a secure asylum for robbers. The city of Patna is of a shape apparently well adapted for the exercise of an effectual control, as it consists principally of one very long street running through its entire extent, with lanes branching to the right and left; and as the majority of these open at one end into the same street, through which alone they are connected with each other, a proper watch maintained in the great street, would prevent nocturnal depredations to any great extent, unless collusion took place on the part of the native police officers.

Travelling distance from Patna to Moorshedabad, 400 miles; by Birboom, 340; distance from Benares, by Buxar, 155; from Delhi, 661; from Agra, 544; and from Lucknow, 316 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, J. D. Douglas, Fullarton, &c.*)

PATNA.—A town and large zemindary in the province of Gandwana, the latter adjoining the division of Sumbhulpoor. Along with the adjacent territories it was transferred to the British government in 1819, and

in 1819 was much disturbed by the refractory conduct of Achil Singh of Borasambah, a powerful and savage zemindar, then in a state of rebellion against the British government. Its earlier history is as follows :—

Twenty generations prior to A.D. 1818 (for the natives here keep no reckoning by the Hindoo or Mahomedan eras) this principality is said to have been governed by seven individuals of low castes, who each in his turn ruled one day, acknowledging for their supreme head a fruit of the citron species, also daily replaced, and distinguished by the title of the Limboo Raja, or lemon king. About this epocha a Chohan Rajpoot female, expelled from Rohilcund by the Afghans after a general carnage of her tribe, reached the town of Patna, where she brought forth a child, who growing up to maturity, was (by the recommendation of a priest) promoted to the supreme dignity instead of the lemon king, by the seven diurnal chiefs. A consequence of this substitution was the speedy destruction of the above seven ephemeral monarchs, and the assumption of absolute power by Ramei Deo, the Rajpoot stranger.

The territory thus acquired was of great extent, including many of the adjacent districts; but the two sons of the ninth in descent, Hera Dhur Deo and Bulram Deo, disagreeing, the latter quitted Patna, and conquered a large tract on the eastern side of the Mahanuddy, which he named Sumbhulpoor, after a town in Rohilcund. In 1818 Ramchunder Deo, the ninth in descent from Hera Dhur Deo above-mentioned, was raja of Patna. When acquired by the British, the country being in a state of complete ruin, all former arrears and balances were remitted, and a money assessment of 9,684 Nagpoor rupees (one-third less than sicca) imposed on Patna and its dependencies, consisting of Bornsambah, Phooljur, Nowaghur, and Keriah. The southern portion, or Gundwan, of Patna touches on Jeypoor, which is under the Madras presidency. — (*Major Roughsedge, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PATREE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, sub-division of Jutwar, forty-four miles S.S.E. from Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 7′ N., lon. 71° 51′ E. This is a large and populous place, defended by three distinct walls, and in remote times was reckoned a place of considerable strength, but the fortifications are now in a state of decay. A beautiful tank protects the northern face. The country to the north is (1800) tolerably well cultivated, but much interspersed with milk bush and low baubool-trees, the rind of which is a strong astringent. Patree originally belonged to Darangdra, formerly an independent principality in the Gujerat peninsula. The present chief is of the Koonbie caste, and only entitled dessaye, although he is in reality thakoor (lord) of the place and its dependencies. The inhabitants are chiefly Rajpoots and Koonbies (cultivators), and formerly the latter, while tilling their fields, were seen armed with the bow and arrow of the Coolies.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

PATTERGOTTA (*Patarghat*).—A village in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, about five miles below Colgong. There is a small temple of Siva here, built on the face of a steep rock which projects into the Ganges; and in the rock itself are several excavations, apparently of considerable antiquity, which still afford occasional shelter to Hindoo mendicants. During the rainy season, the Ganges at Pattergotta forms a strong eddy round several detached masses of rock, on which some remains of mythological sculpture may still be traced.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PATTIALLAH (*pati alaya, the chief's residence*).—The capital of a Seik principality in the province of Delhi, situated about 117 miles N.N.W. from Delhi; lat. 30° 16′ N., lon. 76° 22′ E. This is a town of considerable extent, and now the most flourishing in the old Mogul

division of Sirhind. It is surrounded by a mud wall, and in the centre there is a square citadel, in which the raja resides.

In 1812, on account of the habitual derangement of intellect to which Saheb Singh, the raja of Pattiallah, was subject, although with lucid intervals, the interposition of the British government became necessary to prevent the anarchy towards which this small principality was tending. Charge of the government was in consequence committed to the ranny by Colonel Ochterlony, whose life was thereupon attempted by an intoxicated ruffian, who soon afterwards lost his own. In 1813, Raja Kurm Singh was placed on the guddee or throne, vacant by the decease of his father. Like all others throughout India similarly situated, this petty court is a perfect hot-bed of intrigues and machinations, and the ferment always becomes particularly animated on the death of the chief. Indeed, were it not coerced by the strong hand of the British government, the most sanguinary outrages would be perpetrated; but under existing circumstances the effervescence is restricted to talking and writing. In 1814, when Colonel Ochterlony made the tour of this corner of the Delhi province, he found Kurm Singh, the young raja, engaged in correcting prior abuses; in 1819 he was entrusted with the direct management of the whole principality, which was delivered over to him in a flourishing condition.

In 1815, after the expulsion of the Gorkhas from the hilly country between the Jumna and Sutuleje, the territory of Bughat (one of the twelve lordships) was transferred to Pattiallah for one lack of rupees, with the reservation of four pergunnahs to be appropriated to the maintenance of the expatriated thakoor. The fort of Juggethghur, being surrounded by the Bughat lands, was also transferred to Pattiallah for 30,000 rupees. It was thought by the British government that great advantage resulted from placing a native power which could command a considerable force, in a central district between the Jumna and Sutuleje, to maintain good order, and restrain the turbulence of the inhabitants. In 1827 Raja Kurm Singh was still on the throne.—(*Sir David Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PATUN.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fifty-three miles S.E. from Kotah; lat. 24° 32′ N., lon. 76° 16′ E. This is quite a modern town, having been built within the last twenty-five years by Zalim Singh, regent of Kotah, apparently after the model of Jeypoor, the streets being wide and regular, and intersecting each other at right angles. The whole is surrounded by a substantial wall eight or ten feet thick, and from twelve to fifteen feet high, with round bastions, on some of which light pieces of artillery are mounted. The town is well and compactly built, and the population includes a large proportion of the commercial classes. On the west of Patun there is a lake nearly a mile square, from which throughout the whole year it is abundantly supplied with water.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

PAUGHUR.—A town and pergunnah in the Mysore province, sixty miles east from Chitteldroog; lat. 14° 3′ N., lon. 77° 22′ E.

PAUGHTOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, 101 miles S.S.W. from Hyderabad; lat. 15° 57′ N., lon. 78° 2′ E.

PAUKPUTTUN (*pakapatana, the pure city*).—A town in the Lahore province, 100 miles S.S.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 30° 21′ N., lon. 73° 16′ E. Near to this place is the tomb of Sheikh Furreed, which was visited by Timour.

PAUKTE.—A village in the kingdom of Ava, on the north bank of the Irawady, about six miles below the city of Ava. On the opposite side of the river is the enormous pa-

goda of Kaong Mhudaw, possibly Mahadeva.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

PAULLEE.—A fortress in the province of Aurungabad, placed near the top of an insulated mountain 1,500 feet in height, about three miles to the south-east of the Nagotama river, and forty miles S.E. from Bombay; lat. 18° 23′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E. It was besieged by a Bombay detachment in 1818, and the houses being set on fire by a well-directed bombardment, the garrison lost heart and surrendered, complaining bitterly that whichever way they turned the shells always followed them. — (*Public Journals, &c.*)

PACINEMAUR.—See NEMAUR.

PAUNDERWARA. — A town in the province of Gujerat, eighty-four miles E.N.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 25′ N, lon. 73° 44′ E.

PAUNGUL.—A small district in the province of Hyderabad, of which it occupies the southern extremity, where it is bounded on the east by the Krishna. The town of Paungul stands in lat. 16° 11′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E., eighty-five miles S.S.W. from the city of Hyderabad.

PAUNKEIRA.—A town in the province of Candeish, sixty-four miles S.E. from Surat; lat. 20° 55′ N., lon. 74° 6′ E.

PAURDEE.—A large village in the province of Candeish, belonging to the British government, and chiefly inhabited by Koonbies or cultivators.

PAURUN.—A tolerably good fort in the province of Malwa, situated on the declivity of a hill. A fine stream runs past which contains water throughout the year. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Dewass.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

PAWANGHUR (*Pavana ghar, the fortress of the wind*).—A fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, thirty miles west from Merritch; lat. 16° 48′ N., lon. 74° 19′ E.

PAWUL.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-eight miles N. by E. from Poona; lat. 18° 50′ N., lon. 74° 14′ E.

PAYN GUNGA.—A river in the Deccan which flows through the valley of Berar from west to east, and after a course of about 350 miles, including windings, falls into the Wurda not far from Chanda.

PECHOR.—A considerable town in the province of Agra, twenty-four miles S.S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 50′ N., lon. 78° 16′ E.

PEDDA BALAPOOR.—A town in the Mysore province, twenty-three miles north from Bangalore; lat. 13° 17′ N., lon. 77° 37′ E. By the Mahomedans this place is named Burrah Balapoor; in the Telinga, Pedda Balapoor; in the Carnata, Doda Balapoor; by the English, Great Balapoor; and occasionally by the natives, Paddy Balabaram. The fort, although built of mud, is large and strong, but the palace and other edifices which once occupied its area have nearly disappeared. One side is bordered by gardens, and the other by the town of Balapoor, which in 1800 contained above 2,000 houses, protected by a hedge and mud wall.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

PEDDAPOOR (*Padmapura*). — A considerable town in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, seventeen miles north from Coringa; lat. 17° 6′ N., lon. 82° 15′ E. The adjoining rocks are clustered with round towers and other ruins of the old fortifications, and the native habitations are in the best style of the Deccan. Sugar-cane to a considerable extent is cultivated in the Peddapoor zemindary along the banks of the Eliseram river. A battle was fought here in 1758 between the French army under M. de Conflans and the English commanded by Colonel Forde, in which the former were totally defeated. — (*Fullarton, Roxburgh, Orme, &c.*)

PEELAS ISLES.—A cluster of small isles in the eastern seas, situated due west of Basseelan. Plenty of cow-

ries are found along the beach of these islands, but they are said to be destitute of fresh water.

PEDIR.—A town on the west coast of Sumatra, formerly of considerable commercial note. The soil in this neighbourhood is fertile and well-watered by rivulets, but boggy and marshy near the sea, producing only reeds, rattans, and bamboos. The principal exports are betel-nut, pepper, gold-dust, canes, rattans, bees'-wax, camphor, and benzoin. Poultry may be had in abundance, and more especially ducks. —(*Elmore, &c.*)

PEDRA BLANCA.—A large elevated rock, perfectly white, situated in the sea of China; lat. 22° 19′ N., lon. 114° 51′ E.

PEEPLIA.—A town in the province of Malwa, fourteen miles travelling distance from Jawud; lat. 24° 30′ N., lon. 75° 12′ E. In 1820 it had a fort of masonry, contained about 400 houses, and belonged to Sindia.— (*Malcolm, &c.*)

PEEPLOO.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Deypaulpoor, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

PEEPLOWDA.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 was held by one of the Rutlam family; lat. 23° 18′ N., lon. 75° 28′ E.

PEGU.—An ancient kingdom of India beyond the Ganges, which now forms one of the southern provinces of the Burmese empire. The word Pegu appears to be a corruption of Bagoo, the vulgar name of the capital. The original inhabitants denominate themselves Mon, by the Chinese and Birmans they are termed Taleins (or Talayns). It is contained between latitudes 16° and 19° north, and from 94° to 98° east; average length 240 miles, breadth 180, with an area of about 43,000 square miles. The chief provinces in 1825 were Bassein, Rangoon, Henzawuddy, Martaban, Tongho, Prome, besides seven smaller districts named Shoedong, Sarawady, Donabew, Syriam, Sitang, Shoegong, and Kyari, divided into townships, and these subdivided into an infinite number of villages and hamlets, all registered in the government books.

The boundaries of the ancient kingdom of Pegu commenced on the north about Prome, on the west at the Bassein Creek, and on the east by Tarop Mew, or Chinese point. All to the south as far as the sea, and from Bassein to the Sitang, is the delta of the Irawady, a low flat country, intersected in all directions by branches of that river. The country of the Birmans is marked by opposite features, being north from Prome, hilly and mountainous all the way to Ava, in which space of more than 300 miles the Irawady scarcely throws out a single branch.

The face of the country from the city of Pegu east to the Sitang river is an extensive low plain, covered with rank grass in the dry season, and inundated during the monsoon. North of Sitang town the country is quite unknown, but is supposed to be more elevated and jungly. At the south-eastern extremity the Sitang and Saluen rivers form an elevated doab called the Zyngait mountains, some of which exceed 2,000 feet in height; but this tract belongs properly to the province of Martaban, and is thinly inhabited by wild Carian mountaineers.

The three principal outlets of trade in Pegu are the rivers of Bassein, Martaban, and Irawady; the Sitang, although of considerable breadth at the mouth, being dry at low water. The port of Bassein, or rather Negrais, has more depth of water than that of Rangoon: but this last port, taking it altogether, is one of the finest in the world, to which loaded ships of twelve hundred tons can ascend without pilots at all times of the tide, and being only twenty-six miles from the river's mouth, may be reached in one tide. The rise and fall of the tide is commonly from eighteen to twenty-eight feet. By a commodious inland navigation Rangoon is connected with every pro-

vince lying between Martaban on the one side, the sea on the other, and Amarapura on the north. The principal teak forests below Prome are those of Sarawady, Pinge, Salidan, Lain, and Paddang. It is also found in Tongho, Kaori, and some parts of Martaban. The teak forests were formerly held in jaghire by individuals of the royal family, but that valuable timber every where paid a tax to the crown.

The districts of Dalla and Syriam yield three crops of rice without the assistance of the plough or of planting, simply by dividing the inundated soil with a rude harrow, and scattering the seed after the usual dykes have been constructed to retain the moisture. Under the Burmese government rice used to sell for from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling per maund of eighty pounds, nor has any scarcity of more than a few weeks been felt since 1805. In 1826, while Rangoon was occupied by the British, a Burmese labourer received fifteen, a carpenter twenty, and a Chinese carpenter forty-five rupees per month. This high price of labour when the necessaries of life were so low is to be accounted for by the high taxes on the wages of labour, and the numerous arbitrary taxes to which workmen and mechanics were liable.

The principal classes of inhabitants in the provinces south of Prome are the Burmese, Taliens or Peguers, the Kurians, and the Zabaings; but there are several tribes less numerous, more uncivilized, and less industrious. To be a pure Birman was reckoned a matter of dignity; yet the law made no distinction between a genuine Burmese and a native of Pegu. Indeed the total disappearance of the royal family of Pegu, the expulsion or extermination of every influential leader, and the judicious amalgamation of the conquered with the conquerors, had almost completely obliterated from the minds of the Peguers every recollection of their former independence. Before the British invasion of 1824 all the best land was private property, and daily bought and sold. The fisheries of natural and artificial ponds, lakes, and creeks, composed an important branch of the public revenue, much exceeding that yielded by the land-tax. A capitation, or rather family tax, arbitrarily assessed, was another resource, but no revenue was levied on the sale of intoxicating drugs or spirits, they being a religious prohibition. In 1825 the total direct revenue from the provinces south of Prome was estimated at only 36,85,000 rupees or tickals, the indirect extortions of all sorts probably amounted to twice as much.

Pegu having been long subjected to the Burmese, the history of its conquest by that nation, and other particulars, will be found narrated under the article Ava. So early as 1707 the Arabs of Muscat, then a considerable maritime power, were accustomed to build teak ships here, some carrying from thirty to fifty guns. For the procuring of this valuable timber, a great intercourse has always subsisted between Pegu and all the British provinces, more especially Bengal, where vessels of burden are almost wholly fabricated of Pegu teak, with the assistance of timber from the woods that skirt the base of the lowest range of the Himalaya.

The inhabitants of Pegu appear to have attained civilization at a more early period than the Burmese, and though reduced to a vassal province, were formerly a great and potent nation. In the early Portuguese histories they are denominated the Pandalus of Mon, and they are supposed to have founded the ancient Kalaminham empire. The name Calaminham mentioned by the Portuguese, is probably connected with the Siamese appellation Mingmon. The Mon language is still used by the inhabitants, and appears to be quite original.

After the conclusion of the Burmese war, Rangoon, on the 9th December 1826, was evacuated by the British garrison, which embarked for Moulmein, and the place was delivered over to the Burmese authorities. Immediately on this event the

Peguers revolted, and commenced hostilities against their former masters: but were defeated with much slaughter, some flying to the woods, while a great number migrated into British Martaban and other settlements south of Rangoon. — (*Crawford, Symes, Snodgrass, Leyden, Canning, F. Buchanan, Cox, &c.*)

Pegu.—The capital of the preceding province, situated about ninety miles above the seaport of Rangoon; lat. 17° 40′ N., lon. 96° 12′ E. The extent of ancient Pegu may be still traced by the ruins of the ditch and wall that surround it. From these it appears to have been a quadrangle, each side measuring about 2,600 yards; the breadth of the ditch was about sixty yards, and the depth from ten to twelve feet when in repair; even during the dry season the ditch had seldom less than four feet of water. The wall itself was constructed of brick, badly cemented with clay mortar, about thirty-five feet thick, with small equidistant bastions about 300 yards asunder, but this is now in ruins. Alompra, the Burmese monarch, when he acquired possession of the city in 1757, razed every building to the ground, and dispersed or led into captivity the whole population. The temples or praws alone escaped his fury, and of these the great pyramid of Shoemadoo has alone been reverenced and kept in repair. About 1790 Minderajee Praw, the reigning monarch, to conciliate the natives, issued orders to rebuild Pegu, and invited the scattered families to assemble and repeople their deserted city. It is a much easier task to destroy a city than restore it, for when captured by the British in 1824 it was found in a state of great desolation, part of its interior having been ploughed up, while the inhabitants had built a long straggling village on the banks of the river.

The object in the city of Pegu that attracts most attention is the temple of Shoemadoo Praw; Shoe or Shoo in the Burmese language signifies gold, and Madoo seems to be a corruption of Mahadeo. This temple is a pyramidical building composed of brick and mortar, without excavation or aperture of any sort, octagonal at the base and spiral at the top; each side of the base measuring 162 feet. The great breadth diminishes abruptly in the shape of a speaking trumpet. The extreme height of the Shoemadoo above the level of the country is 331 feet, and the style of architecture is superior to that of the Shoedagon at Rangoon, although the structure itself is not quite so high. On the top is an iron tee or umbrella, fifty-six feet in circumference, which was gilt, and it was formerly the intention of the king to gild the whole building. On the north side of the building were three large bells of good workmanship, suspended near the ground to announce to the spirit of Gaudma the approach of a suppliant, who places his offering, consisting of boiled rice, a plate of greasy sweetmeats, or a coco-nut fried in oil, on the bench near the base of the temple. After it is presented, the devotee seems indifferent as to what becomes of it, and it is often devoured before his face by crows and dogs. Numberless images of Gaudma lie scattered about. A pious Birman who purchases an idol, first procures the ceremony of consecration to be performed by the rahaans or monks; he then takes his purchase to whatever sacred building is most conveniently situated, and there places it within a kioum, on the open ground before the temple, nor does he seem to have the least anxiety about its future preservation. Some of these idols are formed of marble found in the vicinity of Amarapura, and capable of receiving a very fine polish; many are of wood gilded, and a few of silver; the last, however, are not exposed like the others. Silver and gold are rarely used, except in the composition of household gods. The monks assert that the temple of Shoemadoo Praw was begun 2,300 years ago, and built by the exertions

of successive monarchs. On the capture of Pegu in 1824 by the British this sacred edifice was found in a very neglected condition, the gilding having been destroyed by age, and the walls injured by the weather; there was still, however, great store of Gaudmas great and small.—(*Symes, Crawford, &c.*)

Peinghee.—A town in the province of Pegu, situated on the west side of the Irawady; lat. 18° 31′ N., lon. 94° 50′ E. In the vicinity of this place a great part of the teak timber is procured, which is exported from Rangoon to British India. The forests extend along the western mountains, and are in sight of the river. The trees are felled in the dry season, and when the wet monsoon sets in are borne down by the current of the Irawady. Here also ships of 400 tons have been built, although the distance from Rangoon, including windings, be 150 miles.—(*Symes, &c.*)

Peitapoor.—A town in the province of Gujerat, nineteen miles north from the city of Ahmebabad; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 72° 45′ E.

Peling Isle.—An island situated on the east coast of Celebes, between the 123d and 124th degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by fifteen the average breadth; but excepting its geographical position, scarcely any thing is known respecting it. To the east of Peling are many smaller isles, with numerous rocks and shoals.

Pellcaf.—A village surrounding a large square fort, with high walls and round bastions, situated in the Carnatic province, and district of Nellore, about three miles south from the town of Ongole.

Pemburty.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, forty-four miles N.E. from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 17° 38′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E.

Penacondah.—A town in the province of Mysore, seventy-three miles north from Bangalore; lat. 14° 4′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E.

Penang (*or Pulo Penang*) Isle.—See Prince of Wales' Island.

Penatoor.—A village in the Carnatic province, and southern district of Arcot, situated about fifteen miles travelling distance from Gingee. There are the remains of a small mud fort here, enclosing some religious buildings.

Pennar River.—This river rises among the Nundydroog mountains, in the province of Mysore, where on account of its northerly course it is called the Uttara Pinakani. It receives great part of its waters from the Pennacondah hills, after which it winds with a very [illegible] bed towards the Gandicotta hills, passing through a very narrow break in them. It then proceeds to the eastern ranges, which it enters about five miles above Cuddapah, from whence it traverses the Nellore district, where it feeds the great Nellore tank, and irrigates an extensive tract of land contiguous to its banks. The channel is in general sandy, but also rocky in many parts to the east and west of Gandicotta. In the hot season, when the stream is very low, the water is brackish, with a taste of lime, and throughout Cuddapah it is usually so shallow that there are few days in which it is not fordable.—(*Heyne, Fullarton, &c.*)

Pera (*or Pulo Pera*).—A barren rock as high as the hull of a large ship, lying off the west coast of the Malay peninsula, which may be seen many leagues off; lat. 5° 50′ N., lon. 90° 12′ E.

Peramboor.—A small town in the Carnatic province, and district of Madura, eight miles N.W. from the district of Madura; lat. 9° 59′ N., lon. 78° 20′ E.

Perawa.—A small town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820, with the surrounding pergunnah, was held of Holcar by Himmut Khan, the son of Ameer Khan, situated about

seventy-five miles travelling distance N. by E. from Oojein; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E. This is an irregular and meanly built place, containing an old stone fort, encompassed with a low decayed wall of mud and brick-work, scarcely sufficient to oppose the trespassing of a stray bullock.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PERASUNGUM.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, rendered conspicuous by its Hindoo temples, and situated at the confluence of the river Pera with the Godavery opposite to Toka. During the rains there is a ferry here, but at other seasons the river is fordable.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PERAK.—A petty state in the Malay peninsula, situated on a river of the same name, capable of admitting vessels drawing twelve feet of water, but with an intricate channel. From Kota Lumut to Passergaram by the river is about thirty miles, through a pleasant country. The towns of Bindar and Pantong Panjang extend along the left bank, and there are other campongs or villages at intervals. The Perak river inland is shallow, except during the rains when it overflows its banks. The country generally is but little cultivated, the inhabitants depending on the export of tin to procure rice and other articles of nourishment. Nearly all the inhabitants are slaves to some raja or chief, without whose permission they can neither buy or sell. They are very ignorant, not one in a hundred being able to read or write, yet they are described as more civilized than the generality of Malays. The Perak territory is so remarkably productive of tin, that before the troubles 9,000 peculs of 140lbs each were exported. The Dutch had formerly a factory and small stockaded fort here.

The present chief, Sultan Tauj ud Deen, ascended the musnud in 1818, at which period this petty state was a scene of anarchy and confusion. The Siamese king, instigated by the chiefs of Singora and Ligor, claimed superiority over it, and demanded the boonghamas (golden flower) or triennial token of vassalage, which being refused, Perak was attacked by the Quedah forces, this state being feudatory to Siam, and compelled to obey, however unwillingly, its orders. Perak was obliged to submit, and on this occasion the whole existing population are said to have taken to their boats, ready to retreat when the Quedah forces made a forward movement. In 1822 the chief of Salengore expelled both the Siamese and Quedah troops, and restored the Sullan Tauj ud Deen to his uneasy throne.—(*Cracroft, Anderson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PERIACULLUM. — A town in the Carnatic province and district of Madura, thirty miles S.W. from the town of Dindigul; lat. 10° 5′ N., lon. 77° 40′ E.

PERIAPOLLAM. — A town in the Carnatic province, twenty-four miles N.N.W. from Madras; lat. 13° 18′ N., lon. 80° 4′ E.

PERIAPATAM (*priya patana, the chosen city*).—A town in the Mysore province on the borders of Coorg, thirty-seven miles west from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 22′ N., lon. 76° 11′ E. The fortifications are now quite ruinous, and in the inner fort there are not any inhabitants except some tigers. Betaaspoor, a hill about fifteen miles north from Periapatam, is probably about 2,000 feet above the level of the surrounding country, which has been conjectured to be 4,000 feet above the level of the sea yet the natives in the vicinity declare they have never seen ice or snow on the top even of their highest hills.

Sandal-wood grows on the skirts of the forest. It is a strong soil that produces the best wood, which in twelve years attains the most suitable size for being cut. Among the trees there is abundance of teak. Hegode- Dera Cotay, about twenty miles south of Periapatam, is one of the most considerable districts for the production of sandal-wood, to acquire which the billet must be buried in dry ground for two months, dur-

ing which time the white ants will eat up all the outer wood, without touching the heart, which is the perfumed portion. The deeper the colour the higher the smell; but the root sandal is the best. The largest billets are sent to China; the middle sized are used in India. The chips, fragments, and smaller assortment of billets, are best for the Arabian market, and from them also the essential oil is distilled. The whole sandal wood of Hindostan is now in the possession of the British government and the Mysore raja, and as it is an article of luxury, it is a very legitimate subject of monopoly.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

PERMACOIL (*parama covil, the chief temple*).—A small town in the Carnatic, seventeen miles north by west from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 12′ N., lon. 79° 49′ E. During the Carnatic wars this was a place of importance, from its position on a high rock of considerable strength. It was taken by Col. Coote in 1760.

PERMAGOODY.—A large village with a choultry in the Carnatic province, and district of Madura, situated on the Vyar river about forty-two miles S.E. from the city of Madura.

PERPENAAD (*Parapanada*). — A Moplay town on the sea-coast of Malabar, fifteen miles south from Calicut; lat. 11° 3′ N., lon. 75° 54′ E. In 1800 this place contained 700 houses, mostly built of stone and well aired, and which would be comfortable even to Europeans. When compared with that at Madras, the surf on this coast is trifling, and except where rocky headlands run a little way into the sea, boats of any kind may without danger land on the beach.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

PERRAINDA.—A district in the province of Aurungabad, situated between the eighteenth and nineteenth degrees of north latitude. This is comparatively a populous and well-cultivated country, and is intersected by the Seena and Beema and their tributary streams. The principal towns are Perrainda, Kurmilla, Maunkaiseer, and Kurdla.

PERRAINDA.—A large town with a stone fort, both much decayed, in the province of Aurungabad, the capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 18° 18′ N., lon. 75° 44′ E., seventy miles S.E. from Ahmednuggur.

PERSAUMAH (*Parasu Rama*). — A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, ninety miles E.N.E. from Patna; lat. 26° 1′ N., lon. 86° 38′ E.

PERTAUBGHUR (*Pertava ghar*).—A hill fortress in the province of Aurungabad, situated among the Western Ghaut mountains, forty-one miles S.S.W. from Poona; lat. 17° 55′ N., lon. 73° 46′ E.

PERTAUBGHUR DEOLA.—A fortified town in the province of Malwa, division of Kantul, lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 74° 51′ E., 1,698 feet above the level of the sea. The surrounding country is very rugged, and much covered with jungle. This place belongs to Raja Sawunt Singh, who resides at Deola, eight miles west of Pertaubghur, which last is the abode of his son Deep Singh, who in 1820 conducted the affairs of the principality. At the above date there were forty-six subordinate Rajpoot chiefs, who each kept in readiness a stipulated number of troops, which with the raja's own amounted to 156 horse and 623 foot, besides infantry, not of the Rajpoot race. The revenue then amounted to 284,313 rupees, out of which the British government annually received a tribute of 45,000 rupees, formerly paid to Holcar. The raja of Pertaubghur is descended from a junior branch of the Odeypoor family, and his territory in remote times was feudatory to that ancient Rajpoot kingdom.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

PERTAUBGHUR.—A large pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, consisting of many talooks, and at one time containing 360 villages. On the east it is bounded by Sonepoor, and on the west by the Puchmurry range of hills; to the north by Bhutkagurrah and the valley of the Nerbudda.

It is diversified by smaller clumps of hills; but one portion is a most beautiful valley, the northern, or arable portion of which extends thirty miles in length, and in some parts expands to fifteen miles in breadth. The soil is rich and productive, when properly cultivated.--(*Capt. H. A. Montgomerie, &c.*)

PERWUTTUM (*Parvatam, the mountain*).--A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, situated on the south side of the Krishna river, at the north-western extremity of the Curnoul territory, eighty-three miles S. by E. from Hyderabad; lat. 16° 12′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E., 1,563 feet above the level of the sea. The surrounding tract is a wild country, almost uninhabited, except by Chinsuars. The mountains in this neighbourhood are the matrices of diamonds; but they are of clay, slate and sandstone, not granite. The labour, however, of procuring them is so great, and the chance of meeting with veins so uncertain, that the search for them has been long discontinued.

Here is a remarkable pagoda (named also Sri Sailam), to which three causeways lead from different points of the compass. One of them, above thirty miles in length, is carried up and down a number of great precipices. The enclosed deity, called by the officiating Brahmins Mallecarjee, is shewn by them with much caution and mystery. He is generally exhibited in the back part of the building, by the reflected light of a brass speculum, and of course can only be seen as the flashes fall on him. This idol is probably nothing more than the lingam, so much reverenced by the votaries of Siva. The revenues accruing from the resort of pilgrims are collected by a manager, who resides within the enclosure. There is a goddess also worshipped here named Brahma Rumbo. The several pagodas, choultries, courts, &c. are enclosed by a wall, 660 feet long by 510 broad, which is covered with an infinite variety of sculpture. —(*Mackenzie, Voysey, &c.*)

PESHWA.—See MAHARATTAS.

PESHAWER (*the advanced post*).—A large town in Afghanistan, and the occasional residence of its sovereigns; lat. 34° 6′ N., lon. 71° 13′ E. Baber, in his personal memoirs, calls the country Bekram; and by Abul Fazel, in 1582, the town and district are described as follows: "The district Bekram, commonly called Peeshore, enjoys a delightful spring season. Here is a temple named Gorehkehtery, a place of religious resort, particularly for Jogies."

The plain of Peshawer is nearly circular, and about thirty-five miles in diameter. With the exception of a slip of barren sandy country, about fifteen miles broad, extending along the banks of the Cabul river to the Indus, Peshawer is surrounded by mountains; the Indian Caucasus being conspicuous to the north, and the peak of the White Mountain (Suffraid Coh) to the south-west. The northern portion is intersected by three branches of the Cabul river, which unite before they leave the plain; and it is also watered by several rivulets, fringed with willow and tamarisk-trees. The soil of the plain is a black mould, the surface wavy, and on account of the superior elevation of the boundary hills, abundantly supplied with moisture. The orchards scattered over the country produce a profusion of plum, peach, pear, quince, and pomegranate trees; and the greatest part of the plain is in a high state of cultivation, being irrigated by many water courses. Thirty-two villages have been counted within a circuit of four miles. These are generally remarkably neat, adorned with mulberry and other fruit-trees; and over the streams are bridges of masonry, having two small towers at each end.

The town of Peshawer stands on an uneven surface, and is about five miles in circumference. The houses are built of brick (generally unburned), in wooden frames, and are commonly three stories high, the lowest appropriated to commercial purposes. The

streets are paved, but narrow, and have the kennel in the centre. There are many mosques; but none of the public buildings are deserving of any notice except the Bala Hissar and a fine caravanserai. The Bala Hissar is a castle of no strength, on a hill north of the town. It contains several fine halls, commands a romantic view, and is adorned with some spacious and pleasant gardens; as it is, however, only the occasional residence of the king, it is in general much neglected. Some of the palaces are splendid, but few of the nobility have houses here. The inhabitants in 1809 were estimated at 100,000. They are chiefly of Indian origin, but speak the Pushtoo, or Afghan language, as well as Hindostany, and there are also inhabitants of other nations. The shops display for sale dried fruits, nuts, bread, meat, boots, shoes, saddlery, bales of cloth, hardware, ready-made clothes, books, and sheep-skin cloaks. The following are generally termed the tribes of Peshawer, *viz.* the Mahomedzeis, the Gugeeanees, the Mahmends, the Khulieels, and the Daqudzeis.

The city of Peshawer was founded by the great Acber, who encouraged the inhabitants of the Punjab to resort to his new settlement, seeing the Afghans, were so averse to the occupations of agriculture and commerce. From the convenience of its position it unites by a commercial intercourse Persia and Afghanistan with India, and has become an important entrepôt, the residence of many wealthy merchants, and especially of shawl-dealers. During the summer the heat is very great; and in the height of the solstice the atmosphere is almost insupportable, although in the immediate vicinity of everlasting snow. From the plain of Peshawer four ranges of mountains are distinctly seen to the north. Towards the end of February the snow disappears from the lowest, the tops of the second continue covered, and the third half-way down. The height of one of these peaks was estimated by Lieut. Macartney at 20,493 feet, and in June 1809 was covered with snow, while the thermometer in Peshawer stood at 113° of Fahrenheit. In 1824 Yar Mahomed Khan, the governor of Peshawer under Runjeet Singh of Lahore, was fully employed defending his province against the assaults of the surrounding Afghan tribes. In January 1827 Peshawer was garrisoned by two battalions of Runjeet Singh's troops.—(*Elphinstone, Foster, &c.*)

Peshawer (*or Besawer*).—A small town in the province of Agra, near the town of Wyre, situated on the side of a little rocky eminence, having a ruinous palace on its summit, surrounded by trees. In this neighbourhood large flocks of deer are to be seen, and the fruit-trees near the villages swarm with peacocks. Peshawer is a frontier town of Bhurtpore, and a considerable traffic passes through it. Lat. 27° 2′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Peshta.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles east from Banda; lat. 25° 27′ N., lon. 80° 32′ E.

Petalnaig (*Patalaya Nayaca*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, ninety-two miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 13′ N., lon. 78° 27′ E.

Petlaud.—A large town with a good stone rampart in the province of Gujerat, fifteen miles N. by E. from Cambay; lat. 22° 32′ N., lon. 72° 57′ E. The soil of this pergunnah is good, and the population considerable. When first acquired, in 1817, the revenue collections amounted to 5,10,000 rupees; but they have since greatly increased. It was then under the village government, which seems so congenial to Hindoo habits; and generally so efficient, that Capt. Robertson was desired to report on its virtues and defects, the degree in which it provided for the good order of each little community, and what it left to the wisdom of government to improve.

The Dher caste are here exempted

from the general duty imposed on them all over Gujerat, of serving as guides to strangers. Formerly in this pergunnah a traveller might seize on the first person he met, and compel him either to act as guide or find a substitute.—(*Public MS. Documents, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

PETLAWAD.—A large town, the head of a pergunnah in the province of Malwa, situated near a stream, twenty-six miles S.W. from Rutlam; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

PETROLEUM WELLS.—See YANANGHEOUM.

PETTORAH.—A British post in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, about sixteen miles north from Lohoo ghaut. This spot is much admired for the magnificent alpine scenery of its vicinity, being the nearest British station to the snowy peaks of the Himalaya. Five companies of the second Nusseree battalion are usually stationed here; lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 80° 13′ E.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PETTYCOTTA (*Pati cota*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, twenty-seven miles S. by E. from the city of Tanjore: lat. 10° 20′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E.

PEYAUNEY.—A town in the province of Oude, sixty-eight miles N.N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 38′ N., lon. 80° 10′ E.

PEYTAHN (*or Paithana*).—This was formerly one of the most considerable of the twenty-four rajaships in Northern Hindostan, but it is now comprehended within the dominions of Nepaul. The hilly tract contains no mines of value, but the raja formerly possessed a considerable tract on the plains. The town of Peytahn stands on a hill in lat. 28° 35′ N., lon. 82° 4′ E., sixty miles S.E. from Jemlah. Round the chief's house, which was built of brick, formerly about 400 houses were congregated, mostly mud-walled with thatch roofs, having the Rapty river passing on the south side. The whole territory on the hills and plains contained about 2,500 houses, the inhabitants of which were five-sixteenths Khasiyas, three-sixteenths Brahmins, and the remainder low cultivators and tradesmen.—(*F. Buchanan, &c*).

PEYTUN (*Puttun or Paithana*).—A town and small district in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the north bank of the Godavery, forty-two miles S.E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 26′ N., lon. 75° 35′ E. This place was formerly noted for the manufacture of cloths with beautiful silk, gold, and silver borders.

PHAK.—A district in the province of Cashmere, bounded on the west by the Jhylum, and described by Abul Fazel, in 1582, as abounding with odoriferous plants. Adjoining to it is the lake of Cashmere, by him named Dall, one side of which at the above date was close to the town of Phak. On this lake were artificial islands, made for the purposes of cultivation, portions of which were frequently cut off by robbers, who absconded with their booty to a different part of the lake.—(*Abul Fazel, &c.*)

PHARI (*or Parisdong*).—A fortress in the southern portion of Tibet, towards the Bootan frontier; lat. 27° 48′ N., lon. 89° 14′ E. This fortress is a stone building of an irregular form, but deemed of great strength by the natives. On the north-west there is an extensive suburb, and on the south a large basin of water. The valley of Phari is extensive compared with the narrow slips of land in Bootan, and is the head-quarters of the Phari Lama; here a little potentate, being superintendent of a monastery, and governor of an elevated region of rocks and deserts, yielding verdure only during the mildest season of the year, at which time this neighbourhood is frequented by large herds of the long-haired bushy-tailed cattle. The musk-deer are found among these mountains in great numbers.

At this station perpetual winter may be said to reign. Chamalari is for ever clothed with snow, and from its remarkable form is probably the mountain occasionally visible from Purneach and Rajhmahal in Bengal. Wheat does not ripen here, yet it is occasionally cultivated, as forage for cattle during the depth of winter. In summer the vallies and adjacent mountains are frequented by droves of cattle, shawl-goats, deer, musk-deer, hares, foxes, and other wild quadrupeds; of the feathered race are partridges, pheasants, and quails. Such is said to be the intensity of the cold at Phari, although in so low a latitude as 28° N., that animals exposed in the open field are found dead with their heads split open by its force. In 1792 the Chinese established a military post at Phari, which put a stop to all direct communication between the Lassa viceroyalty and Bengal, the advance of strangers from thence being utterly prohibited. —(*Captain Turner, &c.*)

PHOONGA.—A town belonging to the Siamese, situated on the bay of Bengal, north of Junk Ceylon and west side of the isthmus of Kraw. The tin and other produce of Junk Ceylon are carried from hence on elephants, and by the river Bandon to Chaiya in the gulf of Siam, and thence to Bankok.—(*Captain Burney, &c.*)

PHOOPHIN.—A town on the west coast of the gulf of Siam, situated at the mouth of the river Thakham, on the road from Ligore to Bankok, about lat. 9° 38′ N. In 1826 it contained 1,200 Siamese inhabitants under a Chinese functionary, and it is noted for the excellence of steel and iron. It stands at the mouth of the Thakham, a broad and rapid river, which marks the northern boundary of the raja of Ligore's territory. This river proceeds nearly across the peninsula, passing to Pennam, a town three days' journey from Phoonga on the western coast opposite to Junk Ceylon, the tin and other produce of which find their way by this route to Bankok.—(*Captain Burney, Mr. Harris, Mr. Leal, &c.*)

PHILIPPINE ISLES.

The Philippines extend from the fifth to the twentieth degree of north latitude, and comprehend a great number of islands, as yet but imperfectly known. The largest isle is Luzon or Luçonia, to the south of which the principal islands are Mindoro, Pany, Marindique, Negros, Masbate, Zebu, Bohol, Leyte, Samar, and Magindanao. Besides these there are many smaller ones, the aggregate of the whole being denominated the Bisayas, or Islas de Pintados, or painted Indians, the inhabitants having been accustomed to paint their bodies before the arrival of the Spaniards. The whole Philippine archipelago is nominally subordinate to the Spanish government at Manilla; some are partially colonized, and pay tribute collected by the corrigidores or alcades mayores of the provinces into which they are subdivided; but others, such as Magindanao, are not only independent of, but carry on perpetual warfare against the Spanish establishment in the Philippines. This appellation was given them by Ray Lopes de Villabolos, in compliment to Philip the Second of Spain, at that time prince of the Asturias. They were first named the Western Isles, or the archipelago of St. Lazarus, which appellation was bestowed by Magellan when he discovered them.

These islands being situated within the tropics, the sun twice passes the zenith, and exhales the moisture, which afterwards descends in copious showers. The rainy season generally lasts from May until September, sometimes so late as the beginning of December, from which latter period until the succeeding May there is perpetual verdure. The regular winds are the north, the east, and the north-west, each prevailing from three to four months; and when the change arrives terminated with violent storms of rain, light-

ning, and thunder, sometimes accompanied by tornadoes and typhoons and whirlwinds, blowing from every point of the compass within twenty-four hours, tearing up trees by the roots and devastating the country. Notwithstanding their tropical latitude, the heat of the Philippines is not excessive, and as a general spring continues for a large proportion of the year, if the atmosphere were less moist, the climate would be unobjectionable. To this redundant moisture, however, must be attributed the great luxuriance of the country, the trees being always covered with leaves, and the soil with vegetation, which renders it a difficult task to keep the cultivated land clear of weeds, insects, and vermin.

The Philippines, from their extent, climate, and fertility, are capable of producing all colonial commodities, and their geographical position is most advantageous for the commerce of India, America, and China. One of their most distinctive peculiarities is their vicinity to the latter empire, the eastern end of Luzon being little more than 400 miles from the coast of the Chinese province of Fokien, and scarcely half that distance from the southern promontory of Formosa. This proximity has excited at different times the jealousy of both nations, and would still more alarm the Chinese if their European neighbours displayed more energy and activity. Rice is the chief production and daily food of the natives, who appear to have cultivated it in large quantities before the arrival of the Spaniards. The other products resemble those of tropical countries in general, which observation also applies to the animals wild and domestic. Fish abound in the bays and creeks, and are much sought after by the native Bisayans, as it is a pursuit that at once indulges their indolent habits and gratifies their appetite for this particular species of food. In like manner the pith of the palm, the young shoots of the sugar-cane, green withes, and other succulents, serve as food to those who are too lazy to work for better. The natives, however, rear the bread-fruit, beans, and cacavata, and take great care of the palm-tree as it yields them spirit, oil, and a kind of sweatmeat named chanaca. The fruit trees are few in number and of an indifferent quality, except the plantain, orange, and mangoe. The areca or betel-nut palm is also reared, and used profusely both by natives and Spaniards.

Inland there are mines of gold and iron, but they are little attended to. The gold is procured by washing the sands of the rivers that flow in small streams from the mountains. Timber for ship-building of an excellent quality is found on Luzon; that termed molaria has been reckoned superior to the teak. The pala maria (fit for masts) grows to an immense height and thickness, and of this the galleon was formerly masted. Dammer and a species of native hemp are abundant. A little cotton is also raised, and indigo of an excellent quality, wax, wild honey, amber, marble, tar, brimstone, and many lesser objects may be named among the articles of traffic in these islands. To their indigenous productions the Spaniards added horses and horned cattle, which have multiplied so much that they run wild among the mountains without being claimed by any master, from which fact we may conjecture that there are few (if any) tigers or strong carnivorous animals. The Spaniards also introduced sheep, geese, grapes, figs, wheat, pepper, coffee, cocoa, sugar, tobacco, and various other plants, which have thriven remarkably well. More recently the enormous profit attending the sale of opium in China has occasioned the introduction and cultivation of the poppy, for which the soil and situation are so favourable, that it is surprising it never was introduced before; and placed as these islands are in the very centre of the opium consumers, its production may ultimately affect the Bengal revenue derived from the monopoly of that drug. Among the curious birds is the species of swallow (the hirundo

esculenta) that forms the edible nests so highly esteemed by the Chinese; and in the sea is the biche de mar, another Chinese delicacy, and the enormous kima cockle, some of the shells of which will hold a gallon, and are used in churches as vessels to contain the holy water.

For internal administration these islands are distributed into thirty-one provinces; Luzon contains sixteen, the remainder comprehend the other islands, including the distant Marianas. The aggregate population of the Philippines in 1820 amounted to 2,249,852 persons; of which number Luzon contained 1,376,022; Panay, 292,760; Zebu, 108,246; Samar, 57,922; Leyte, 40,623; and Negros, 35,415. These consist of the following races, viz. Europeans, Creole Spaniards, Spanish Mestizos, Mahomedans of Western India, Negroes, Chinese, and other Eastern tribes. Europeans of every description throughout the islands amounted to only 2,837; people of colour, 6,170; Chinese, 6,201, of whom 1,569 had been converted to Christianity. The native population consisted of various tribes, quite distinct from each other, the most considerable of which inhabited Luzon, and were named the Tagals, the Pampanga, the Patagasinan, the Ylocos, and the Cayagan. The converts to the Catholic religion are very numerous among the natives, which enables the Spaniards to control so disproportionate a multitude, and rapidly increasing.

The natives of the Philippines who are Christians possess a share of energy and intelligence not only superior to their pagan and Mahomedan brethren of the same islands, but also to the inhabitants of all the western portion of the great eastern archipelago, surpassing them not only in comparative civilization, but also in vigour of mind and general capacity. This fact is established by the circumstance that, in conducting the intercolonial navigation of India (and even to Europe), the natives of Manilla are universally employed in the country ships belonging to Europeans as gunners and steersmen (or seacunies), offices to the filling of which departments it has in vain been tried to train the Malays and natives of Hindostan.

A considerable intercourse is maintained with the east coast of China as far north as Nankin, from twenty to thirty junks of various sizes being constantly employed in that trade. The imports are peltry, silks, and cooking utensils; the exports to China, spices, dried hides, saffron, timber, &c. The square-rigged vessels that cleared out for foreign ports in 1818 were nine Spanish, five French, four Portuguese, seventeen English, and ten American. The imports amounted to 3,054,511 dollars, the exports 1,205,649. A number of small galleys from twenty to fifty tons are kept constantly in a state of equipment to act against the Moors, as the Magindanese and Sooloo pirates are called by the Spaniards; and as a further check the latter also maintain a fort and garrison at Samboangan; but their authority scarcely extends beyond the glacis of the fort. At Manilla there is a particular fund from the religious order of Mercy, appropriated to the rescue of such unfortunates as may have been captured by these pirates.

The Spanish revenue is principally realized in Luzon, and arises chiefly from the monopoly of Tobacco, which in 1798 yielded about 500,000 dollars. The government manufactory of tobacco employed then from four to five hundred persons, the indulgence of that luxury being universal, even with children not above five years of age. The duty from a spirit extracted from the palmyra produced about 300,000 dollars; the export and import duties about 180,000; and the grand total about one million of dollars per annum.

The native Indians carry on among themselves a barter for the different productions of their country in which gold is the representative of value and medium of exchange. They carry on likewise a small trade with the Chinese and Malays of Borneo

for flag-stones, copper, and articles of furniture; but their wants being few, the quantity required is insignificant. With respect to clothing, they go almost naked; their rice they cook in a joint of green bamboo, and eat it on a leaf of the plantain tree.

The early Spanish navigators who visited the Philippines framed extraordinary narratives regarding the original inhabitants, whom they divided into three classes: satyrs, men with tails, and sea-monsters. It is probable they found only two,—the various tribes of Bisayan Indians, and the strange race of Oriental negroes who still occupy the Papuan Isles; the latter roaming the woods and mountains almost in a state of nature, merely covering the fore part of the body with the bark of a tree, and subsisting on roots and such animals as they could kill with a bow and arrow. They slept wherever they happened to be benighted, and approached in their manners and habits extremely near to the beasts of the forest. The Spaniards have at last succeeded in domesticating and converting some of them to Christianity, in which they acquiesce so long as food is supplied without labour, but if they be compelled to work to procure it they fly again to the mountains. The Spaniards are of opinion that these negroes are the original inhabitants of the Philippines, and that the Bisayan Indians, like themselves, were foreign intruders, who never could completely subdue the interior. At present these Papuas are few, and their power limited; but their hatred to the Bisayans flourishes in all its pristine perfection. When the latter kill a negro it is customary for another to bind himself by oath that he will disappear, and not return until he has killed three or four Bisayans. To carry this purpose into execution he watches the Bisayan villages and the passes of the mountains, and if any unfortunate wanders within his reach he murders him forthwith.

Besides the Tagala nation principally found in the island of Luzon, there are many other races who differ in features, language, and the various relations of the social state. Such are the Pampangas, who reside to the north of Manilla, and the painted races termed by the Spaniards Pintados, who are by some reckoned a branch of the Bisayan, and related to the Tagala and Buggesses, while by others they are supposed to be of the same origin as the Horaforas or Idaan of Borneo. The Indians found in the Philippines by the Spaniards were of regular stature, olive complexion, flat noses, large eyes, and long hair. They all enjoyed some form of government, and each tribe was distinguished by a peculiar name; but from the similarity of their dress, manners, and customs, they probably had all the same derivation.

The chiefs are described as acquiring their dominion both by hereditary descent and personal valour, but their authority rarely extended over more than one or two villages, and between neighbouring communities everlasting warfare prevailed. The prisoners on each side were sacrificed or condemned to slavery, out of which custom arose three classes of persons: the chiefs or masters, the slaves, and those whom the chiefs had enfranchised with their descendants, who are to this day named Timavas, which properly signifies children of liberty. In some parts Indians were discovered whiter than others, the progeny probably of Chinese or Japanese who had been shipwrecked on the coast, and who had intermarried with the natives; more especially the tribe Igorrotes or Ylocos, whose eyes have a Chinese shape.

According to their customs they are permitted to have only one wife, but the principal persons have many concubines, who are usually slaves. As among certain tribes in Sumatra, the bridegroom of the Philippines purchases his wife, and frequently, as among the ancient Jews, by a previous apprenticeship to her father of several years. During this probation it is incumbent on all the suitor's re-

lations to behave respectfully to the future bride and her relations, as if any insult be offered it vitiates the agreement, which is always acceptable to the parents of the female, who are left at liberty to dispose of her a second time. The husband, to make up for the hardship he sustained during his probation, treats his wife like a slave the moment it has expired, compels her to perform every species of labour, rewards her with a daily beating, and lives himself in idleness.

The interest which the parents thus have in the disposal of their female children, dooms them to a life of misery, and is in the highest degree repugnant to humanity and good morals. The Spaniards (whose colonial system, with the exception of compulsory conversions, is on the whole merciful) endeavoured to effect its abolition, both by royal edicts, and by the influence of the clergy, but, such is the inveteracy of custom among barbarians, as yet without success. The marriage ceremony is accompanied by the immolation of a hog, which, with many grimaces, is slain by a priestess. After this she bestows benedictions, and an old woman having presented the company with some food (part of the hog), the ceremony is concluded with dancing, drinking, feasting, and various obscenities.

The Catholic missionaries complain, that even the Bisayan converts persuade the others not to be baptized, that they may escape tribute and imposts, which are, nevertheless, very moderate. The customs of one tribe revenging the murder of an individual on the whole tribe of the perpetrator, likewise very much impedes conversion and civilization, for from this results to the weakest tribes a necessity of migrating, or confederating with others. In such instances the baptized Indians must accompany those who are still unconverted, and remove to a distance from the misionsaries; besides which, they are constantly exposed to hostilities from their Pagan associates.

The Tagala or Gala language, is among the Philippines what the Malay is in the Eastern archipelago, and the Hindostany on continental India. On the island of Luzon six dialects are reckoned, and two in Atton. Some of these are current in several islands, but the most universal are the Tagala and Bisaya; the last of which is very barbarous, the other more polished and refined, having been cultivated by Spanish missionaries. The alphabet consists of seventeen letters; three vowels and fourteen consonants. The Tagala character is still used in Comintan, and in general among the Tagalas who have embraced Christianity. The idioms of this language are rendered so complex by a variety of artifices, that it becomes quite impossible for a person who understands all the original words of a sentence, either to recognize them individually, or comprehend the meaning of the whole.

The ancient traditions of the Tagala race, their genealogies, and the feats of their gods and heroes, are carefully preserved in historical poems and songs; from which in general the whole substance of Eastern history must be gleaned. These original memorials of the race, the Spanish missionaries with pious care have wished to extirpate, and have sedulously employed themselves in composing religious tracts, both in prose and verse, in the Tagala language, with the hope of their supplanting the legends of national and Pagan antiquity. Many psalms and hymns, and even some of the Greek dramas, composed by Dionysius Areopageta, have in this manner been translated into the Tagala language. The other dialects of the Philippines are many and various, so that the inhabitants of one province are unintelligible to those of another; yet notwithstanding this complexity, it appears from their construction that they are all derivatives from one parent language. The prepositions and pronouns are said to be nearly the same in all; the numerical characters differ but little,

and they have many words in common of exactly the same structure.

In their religious ceremonies the original Bisayans use neither idols nor temples, their sacrifices being offered in arbours, which they raise for that purpose; nor have they any external address of adoration to their gods. They have priestesses whom they term babailonas or catalonas, to whom the function belongs of performing the sacrifice. Taking a lance in her hands, with extravagant gestures she works herself up to a frenzy, muttering unintelligible words, which are received as prophetic; she then pierces a hog, and having distributed the carcass among the bye-standers, the ceremony concludes with dancing and drinking. These sacrifices are offered alike to evil spirits and to the manes of their ancestors; the latter of whom they are taught to believe inhabit very large trees, rocks of a fantastic shape, or any other natural object, varying in respect to magnitude or formation from the usual course. Of this fact their conviction is so strong, that they never pass such objects without asking permission of their imaginary inhabitants. They have many other superstitions, one of which is the Patiansé, a spirit or ideal being, whose employment and amusement consists in preventing, by a method peculiar to itself, the delivery of a woman in labour. To counteract the malignity of this demon, the husband having made fast the door, strips off his clothes, lights a fire, and arming himself with a sword, flourishes it about furiously until the delivery is accomplished. The Tighalong is another object of their apprehension, and is described as a phantom that assumes a variety of uncouth and monstrous shapes, and interposes its authority to prevent the converted Indian from performing the duties of his religion.

These and other superstitions formerly had an extensive influence, and are still extolled by impostors, who find their account in recommending these and other absurdities as panaceas for illness and misfortune. Such also is the imbecility of the natives, that although they consider these customs sinful, and have strong doubts as to their efficacy, yet they continue to practise them, thinking chance, they know not why, may effect something in their favour. The Spanish missionaries have also found them but superficial Christians, and more influenced by a dread of power, than by any religious impressions or rational piety. Although they do not acknowledge any future state of retribution, they admit the immortality of the soul, and constantly apprehend mischief from the spirits of the deceased, who they suppose retain all the wants incident to man, during his sojourn on earth. For this reason they place on the tomb clothes, arms, and food; and on the fourth day from the funeral ceremony a vacant seat is left at table for the deceased, whom they believe, like Banquo's ghost, to be actually present, although not perceptible. To verify this fact sand is strewed on the floor, on which the prints of the feet of the defunct are asserted to be seen; and in order to deprecate his supposed wrath eatables are presented, fear and superstition forming the basis of the Bisayan character.

Magellan, whose ship first circumnavigated the globe on the day of St. Lazarus, in A.D. 1581, discovered a great many islands, which he named the archipelago of St. Lazarus, and on Easter day he arrived at the island of Magindanao. Several voyages were subsequently undertaken by the Spaniards for the purpose of taking possession of these islands; but nothing was effected until 1564, when in consequence of orders from Philip the Second of Spain, a fleet was despatched from Mexico under Miguel Lopez de Legaspi, which arrived at the Philippines in February 1565, first stopping at Zebu, which was soon subdued.

In 1570 a fleet sailed from the island of Panay for Luzon, when after several engagements with the rajas of the country, who appear to have been principally Malays, they effected

a settlement at the mouth of the Manilla river. In 1571 Legaspi in person sailed to Luzon, and entering the river on the 10th of May, captured the town of Manilla, which he constituted the capital of the Spanish dominions in the Philippines. He afterwards sent detachments to different parts of the island, accompanied by friars, without whose zeal little progress would have been made. Various settlements were in consequence made on the sea-coast; but down to the present day the interior has never been either explored or subdued. In 1572 several Chinese junks arrived with merchandize, and many individuals of that industrious nation colonized on Luzon, much against the inclination of the Spaniards, who repeatedly expelled them. In this year Legaspi, the first viceroy of the Philippines, died.

In 1574 the existence of the colony was endangered by an attack from Limahon, a great Chinese pirate, who arrived with sixty-two junks; but after many bloody engagements, he was expelled and great part of his army destroyed. Towards the conclusion of the sixteenth century a considerable and open trade was carried on with Japan, the natives of which, very different from their descendants, navigated all over the Eastern seas, and brought cargoes of their richest merchandize to Manilla, both for the consumption of the colony and for the export trade to Acapulco. The Japanese emperor, Taycosuma, even wished to be acknowledged king of Manilla, but without success. Through the medium of this commerce, several friars were introduced into Japan, for the propagation of the Catholic religion. About the same period the king of Cambodia sent the governor of the Philippines a present of two elephants, and solicited his assistance against the sovereign of Siam. In 1596 commerce flourished, and an intercourse subsisted with China, Java, the coast of Coromandel, and Mexico.

In 1590 the Spaniards attacked the island of Sooloo, named by them Jolo, but were repulsed with great slaughter; nor could they ever make any impression on the Sooloo pirates, who for three centuries have been the scourge of the Philippines, and still continue so. When the Dutch established themselves in India a war commenced between them and the Spaniards, which lasted near half a century. By the year 1639 the number of Chinese on these islands amounted to 30,000, mostly settled as cultivators in Calamba and Binan. The Spaniards appear to have been always jealous of them, although the most industrious and profitable class of their subjects. In 1639, in consequence of some disaffection, real or imaginary, the Spaniards commenced a war against them, and made so dreadful a havock, that in a short time they were reduced to 7,000, who surrendered at discretion. During this disturbance the native Indians remained neuter, having a greater hatred to the Chinese than against the Spaniards. In 1662 Manilla was threatened with an invasion by Coxinga, a great Chinese pirate, who had subdued Formosa and expelled the Dutch, but it never was carried into effect.

In A D. 1757, the governor of the Philippines despatched all the Chinese to their own country, and in order to prevent their future establishment in the archipelago, he appropriated the quarter of St. Fernando for the reception of such Chinese as should come for commercial purposes, and made regulations to ensure their reembarkation, with the exception of such as should embrace Christianity, who were permitted to remain and become cultivators. In 1739 the galleon from Acapulco, with a million and a-half of dollars, was captured by Lord Anson.

In 1762 Manilla was attacked by a British fleet and army under Admiral Cornish and Sir William Draper, which arrived on the 22d of September, and after a short siege, stormed the walls on the 5th October. The archbishop, who acted as governor,

was admitted to capitulate, and, to prevent a general plunder of the city, agreed to pay the conquerors four millions of dollars; but of this, little more than half was ever realized. By the terms of the capitulation, the whole of the islands were surrendered; but in the remote provinces the Spaniards maintained their independence, and the British force was scarcely sufficient to garrison the town, far less to subdue the country. Skirmishes and small actions continued to occur between the Spanish and British, in which the latter were joined by the Chinese settlers, while in many districts the Indians rose against their conquerors. Much confusion in consequence prevailed until the 23d July 1763, when an English frigate arrived with the armistice, but Manilla was not conclusively delivered up until March 1764.

Since that period the Spanish colonies in these fruitful islands have not been disturbed by any European enemies, although often threatened with invasion from British India. At present their power does not extend beyond the immediate reach of their arms, and influence of their religion, for they have never established their dominion in the Eastern Archipelago over any nation considerably civilized. In fact, they have either wholly conquered and colonized, or they have been completely baffled, and have continued in a state of perpetual hostility with the adjacent tribes that they have not been able to subdue. The most considerable of these are the Malays of Borneo, the natives of the Souloo Isles, and those of Magindanao.—(*Zuniga, Singapoor Chronicle, Crawfurd, Blackwood's Magazine, Sonnerat, Leyden, Marsden, Forest, &c.*)

PHOOLJUA.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, a dependency on Patna, and situated about sixty-five miles W.S.W. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1817 it was assessed at 1,750 Berar rupees, which were realised.

PHOOLMURRY.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, seventeen miles north from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 20° 7′ N., lon. 75° 38′ E. This place is finely situated on the banks of the Girjah, at the base of a hill in the midst of mangoe groves; but the interior is gloomy, and thinly peopled.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PHRIPHRI.—A town on the west coast of the gulf of Siam, situated about lat. 13° 20′ N., and said to have been once the capital of the Siamese empire. By the French missionaries it was named Pipley.

PHULTAMBA.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, fifty miles N.W. from, and situated on the southern bank of, the Godavery. Dr. Taylor conjectures it to have been the ancient Plutana.

PILLAMERCUM.—A large choultry in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, situated by the sea-side, on the verge of a wild country interspersed with low rocks, about nineteen miles travelling distance E. by S. from Ramnad. Remains of a paved road, much obliterated by the sand, may still be discerned between this place and Taritony, where the pilgrims embarked for Ramisseram.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

PILLIBEET (*Pilibhit*).—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, thirty miles N.E. from Bareily; lat. 28° 42′ N., lon. 79° 42′ E. This place stands on the banks of the Gurrah, which is navigable during some part of the year. During the Rohillah prosperity Pillibeet was an emporium of commerce, and was greatly enlarged by Hafez Rehmut, who erected a mosque here, elegant in structure, but deficient in magnitude, and which in consequence makes a more superb show as a picture than the reality justifies. He also built a spacious pettah four miles in circumference. After the transfer of Rohilcund to Oude in 1774 its commerce was mostly annihilated, but it has since revived considerably. The rice called the Pilli-

beet rice, grown to the north of Deekhalu, is of a very superior quality, and celebrated all over Upper Hindostan for its whiteness and firmness. It is generally called Pillibeet rice from its being sold here at a great fair, but it is to be purchased in the greatest perfection at Chilkeah.—(*Fullarton*, *Bishop Heber*, *&c.*)

Piming Pass.—In Northern Hindostan, the boundary between Bussaher and Chinese Tartary, and 13,518 feet above the level of the sea. Beyond the Sutuleje, and visible from hence, is the mighty Pargeul, an immense mass that rises 13,500 feet above the bed of the river, and 21,000 above the level of the sea.—(*Messrs. Gerards*, *&c.*)

Pinagra.—A small town in the Salem and Barramahal districts, ninety-two miles E.S.E from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 5′ N., lon. 77° 57′ E.

Pindaries.—See Malwa Province.

Pinder Dada Khan.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the north bank of the Jhylum, 106 miles N.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 39′ N., lon. 72° 47′ E.

Pinder Makouleh.—A town in the province of Lahore, eighteen miles E. from the Indus; lat. 33° 26′ N., lon. 71° 59′ E.

Pindtaruke (*or Pintara*).—A small village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on a sandy plain, extending about two miles from the western shore, and twenty miles from the north-western extremity of the peninsula; lat. 22° 19′ N., lon. 69° 24′ E. In this vicinity there is a spring of pink-coloured water, celebrated among the natives as a place of pilgrimage, the Hindoos considering it to have been the spring where the five Pandoos procured their pardon for the crime of cow-killing, subsequent to their expulsion from Hastinapoor.—(*Macmurdo*, *&c.*)

Pinjor.—A small town and valley or doon in Northern Hindostan, thirty-one miles N.E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 47′ N., lon. 76° 54′ E. This valley belongs to the raja of Pattiallah, who has here a garden constructed originally by a nobleman of the emperor Acber's court. The grounds are laid out in a succession of terraces, and are supplied with abundance of water by canals from the neighbouring hills, forming cascades and jets-d'eaux throughout the garden.

Pin Nath Temple.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles N. by W. from that of Bhadrinath; lat. 29° 50′ N., lon. 79° 32′ E.; 7,111 feet above the level of the sea.

Piploud (*Pippalavati*).—A town in the province of Candeish, thirty miles N.E. from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 37′ N., lon. 76° 37′ E.

Piply (*Pippali*).—A town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, twenty-seven miles south from the town of Cuttack; lat. 20° 5′ N., lon. 85° 58′ E.

Pipli.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Midnapoor, twenty-eight miles E.N.E. from Balasore; lat. 21° 42′ N., lon. 87° 20′ E. About the middle of the seventeenth century this was a great resort of European commerce, and from whence the Dutch shipped annually 2,000 tons of salt. The first permission that the English received from the Mogul emperors to trade with Bengal was restricted to Piply, now almost unknown. Since that period the floods have washed away a great part of the town, and formed a dangerous bar in the river. The town still stretches a great length, but in 1819 was a dull, thinly inhabited, and poor place.

Pitt's Straits.—The straits that separate the islands of Salwatty and Battanta, lying off the western extremity of Papua, or New Guinea, are thus named. In length they may be estimated at thirty miles, by six the average breadth.

Plassey (*Palasi*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Nud-

dea, about thirty miles south from Moorshedabad; lat. 23° 45′ N., lon. 88° 15′ E. The battle or rout of Plassey, which decided the fate of Bengal, and ultimately of India, was fought on the 23d of June 1757. The British forces under Colonel Clive consisted of 900 Europeans, 100 topasses, and 2,000 sepoys, with eight six-pounders and two howitzers. The young nabob, Seraje ud Dowlah's army, if such a rabble deserve the name, was estimated at 50,000 foot, fifty pieces of cannon, and about forty French fugitives from Chandernagore, the only trustworthy portion of the whole despicable mass.

The field of this important achievement can now with extreme difficulty (if at all) be traced, owing chiefly to the encroachments of the river, which has here entirely changed its course. The nabob's hunting seat, in common with almost every other memorial, has been long ago swept away, and even the celebrated mangoe grove is no longer to be found.—(*Orme, Fullarton, &c.*)

PLASSIA (*Palasiga*).—A town in Northern Hindostan, the residence of the Hindoor raja, situated some miles from the left bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 2′ N., lon. 76° 38′ E. The country is a little open down to Roper, where a low range of hills, or rather hillocks, marks a kind of separation from the plains.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

POGGY ISLES (*Pulo Poggy*).—The Poggy or Nassau isles form part of a chain which lie off the whole length of the west coast of Sumatra, at the distance of from twenty to thirty leagues. The north extremity of the Northern Poggy is situated in lat. 2° 18′ S., and the southern extremity of the most southern island in lat. 3° 16′ S. The two are separated from each other by a very narrow passage called See Cockup, which affords very safe anchorage for ships.

The surface of these islands is rough and irregular, consisting of high and precipitous mountains, covered with trees to their summits, among which are the species called poon (puhn), fit for the largest masts. The woods in their present state are quite impervious. The sago-tree grows in plenty, and is the chief food of the inhabitants, who do not cultivate rice. The coco-nut tree, bamboo, and a great variety of fruits, such as mangosteens, apples, plantains, &c. are also to be found. The wild animals are the red deer, hogs, and various kinds of monkeys; but there are not any buffaloes, goats, or tigers. Fish are procured in great plenty, and with pork constitute the favourite food of the natives. The shell of the nautilus is often driven on shore empty, and the natives declare they have never yet caught its inhabitant (a sepia) alive in the shell.

Notwithstanding the proximity of these islands to Sumatra, the inhabitants and their language have no resemblance to those of Sumatra, but a strong one to those of the South Sea islands. Near the entrance of the straits of See Cockup (Si Cakap), on the northern island, are a few houses inhabited by Malays from Bencoolen, who reside for the purpose of boat-building, on account of the abundance of timber. The natives are few, and subdivided into small tribes, each occupying a small river, and dwelling in one village. On the Northern Poggy are seven villages, and on the southern five; the aggregate inhabitants not exceeding 1,400, as the interior is uninhabited. Their clothing is a piece of coarse cloth made of the bark of a tree; their stature about five feet and a half, and their complexion a light brown or copper colour like the Malays. The use of betel is unknown, and the tattooing of the skin (two marked distinctions) universal. They have no metal except what they procure from Sumatra. The greatest length of their war-canoes is sixty-five feet, breadth five feet, depth three feet and a half; and their weapons bows and arrows.

The natives of these islands do not appear to have any form of re-

ligious worship, and do not practise circumcision. When asked from whence they came, they reply, from the sun. Murder is punished by retaliation; adultery by cutting off the hair of the female, and transferring the paramour's goods and chattels to the injured husband. Their customs in the disposal of their dead resemble those of the Otaheiteans.

In A.D. 1783 the son of a raja of one of these islands came over to Bencoolen on a visit of curiosity, and seemed to be an intelligent man. He appeared acquainted with several of the constellations, and gave distinct names to the pleiades, scorpion, great bear and Orion's belt; and understood the distinction between fixed and wandering stars. He particularly noticed Venus, which he named the planet of the evening. Sumatra he named Seraihu, and said that as to religion, the rajas alone prayed, and sacrificed fowls and hogs. In the first instance they address themselves to the power above the sky; next to those in the moon, who are male and female; and lastly to that evil being whose residence is below the earth, and is the cause of earthquakes.

The dialects of Neas and the Poggy isles (the inhabitants of which are termed Mantaway by the Malays) have probably greater pretensions to originality than any of the Sumatran dialects, but more resemble the Batta than any other language.—(*Crisp, Marsden, Leyden, &c.*)

Poin.—A town in Northern Hindostan, formerly the residence of one of the twenty-four rajas, but now subject to Nepaul; lat. 28° 9′ N., lon. 83° 30′ E., 100 miles N.W. from Catmandoo. It stands on the top of a high hill, where much snow falls, and the cold is intense. According to native accounts this capital contains 120 houses, and the whole territory 2,000. The tract is said to possess iron mines, that formerly yielded the raja 4,000 rupees per annum.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Poinseer.—A village on the island of Salsette, province of Aurungabad, about fourteen miles travelling distance north by east from Bombay. Here is a small but neat Portuguese church, and the village is inhabited entirely by native Christians.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Pointy.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, a few miles above Telliaghurry. The river here winds round a promontory of the Vindhya ridge, and the tomb of a Mahomedan saint forms a conspicuous object on the projecting eminence.

Point Palmiras.—A promontory and small town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack; lat. 20° 43′ N., lon. 87° 5′ E. In favourable weather Bengal pilot schooners for the river Hooghly are frequently met with as soon as this cape is passed.

Point de Galle.—A fortified town near the south-western extremity of Ceylon, seventy-eight miles along the sea-shore, S.S.E. from Columbo; lat. 6° 1′ N., lon. 80° 10′ E. The harbour here is spacious, and more particularly the outer road; the inner harbour is secure during a great part of the year, but winds from a particular quarter are requisite to carry vessels out to sea. Ships outward-bound from Europe come in sight of the first land at Dondra Head, the southern promontory of Ceylon, and mark Point de Galle as the first harbour. There is no regular rainy season here, as from its situation at the extremity of the island this spot partakes of both monsoons. More rain, however, falls between November and February than at any other time.

The fort of Point de Galle is about a mile and a quarter in circumference, and stands near the southern extremity of the island, on a low rocky promontory. Some of the bastions command the passage leading to the inner harbour, which is intricate and rocky, and should not be attempted in the dark without an experienced pilot. The works are extensive and substantial, but commanded by seve-

ral eminences, one of which is within musket-shot. On the side opposite to the fort there is a reservoir of excellent water, and a wooden quay provided with every convenience for filling the casks. During the Dutch government most of the cinnamon was shipped from hence, and British ships still call on their way to Columbo, and take up the quantity produced in the districts of Galle and Matura. The Europeans live mostly within the walls of the fort, which are capacious; but the native Ceylonese and a little intermixture of strangers are scattered about in all directions. Coir ropes are manufactured here in considerable quantities and exported, as also coco-nuts, coco-nut oil, areca or betel-nuts, pumplenoses, and oranges.

A colony of Chinese was settled here by government in 1801, but as Mr. Cordiner does not mention them in 1805, it is probable they have not prospered. Point de Galle ranks after Trincomalee in the list of Ceylonese towns, yet it is in fact larger, richer, and more commercial. The adjacent country is mountainous, four ranges being visible rising one above the other, and covered with jungle to the summit. The coast is mostly coral, of which substance a large portion of the fortifications is built, and along the sea-coast fifty different sorts of small shell-fish may be gathered. The Portuguese obtained possession of Point de Galle so early as A.D. 1517.—(*Percival, Cordiner, M. Graham, Lord Valentia, Bruce, &c.*)

Point Pedro.—The northernmost extremity of the island of Ceylon, situated in lat. 9° 46′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

Poligars' Territory.—A subdivision of the Carnatic province, at present comprehended in the districts of Madura and Dindigul, and situated between the tenth and eleventh degree of north latitude. Although this tract among Europeans has acquired the distinctive appellation of Poligars' territory, the name is not peculiar, being common to every native chief throughout the south of India.

These Poligars are (or rather were) chieftains of different degrees of power and consequence, who bear a strong affinity to the zemindars of the Northern Circars and the thakoors of Rajpootana. Those whose pollams or estates are situated in the frontier and jungly part of the country, are represented to have been for the most part leaders of banditti and freebooters, who, as is not uncommon in Asia, have after been entrusted with the police of the country. Some of them trace their descent from the ancient rajas, or from those who held high confidential offices under the Hindoo governments, and received allowances in land and money for the support of a body of horse and foot on the feudal principle. Other Poligars had been renters of villages, or revenue officers, who had revolted in times of public disturbance, and obtained possession of lands, to which they were constantly adding by successive encroachments, when the ruling power happened to be weak and inefficient. The heads of villages, when favoured by the natural strength of the country, frequently assumed the name and character of Poligars, and kept up their military retainers and nominal officers of state, exercising in a contracted sphere many of the essential powers of sovereignty.

The amount of tribute they paid to the soubahdars of the Carnatic was wholly disproportioned to the revenues; but more was invariably extorted by the officers of government, under the name of fines and presents, which was a perpetual source of violence and distraction. During the periods of public calamity, they retaliated on the nabobs' officers, and on the peaceable inhabitants of the government villages, those acts of indefinite and oppressive authority which had been committed on themselves. Hence the British government was repeatedly burthened with large armaments to subdue these feudatories, involving heavy disbursements of the public revenue, and severe loss of lives.

The principal pollams or poligar estates are those of Shevagunga, Ramnad, Manapura, Madura, and Nattam, where the succession descends in the female line through the oldest daughter, who conveys the title of raja to her husband. The two first were permanently assessed in 1803, at the same time with those of Tinnevelly, and the contributions of the rest of the revenue were soon after settled in perpetuity. From that period the tribute of the poligars, although it had been increased in amount, has been punctually paid; no blood has been shed, or money expended in hostile operations, and the surrounding districts have enjoyed tranquillity under the ancient system of village police, so congenial to the Hindoo disposition.—(*Fifth Report, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

POLLIUMPETTY.—A large village in the province of Coimbatoor, fifty-two miles travelling distance N. N. W. from Daraporam. At this place there is a temple dedicated to Vishnu, where he is worshipped under the epithet of Permala.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

POLO ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, situated off the west coast of Luzon or Luçonia, and about the fifteenth degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by three the average breadth.

PONDICHERRY (*Puducheri*). — A city on the sea-coast of the Carnatic province, once the most splendid European settlement in Hindostan, but greatly reduced by its subsequent misfortunes; lat. 11° 57′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E.; eighty-five miles S. by W. from Madras. This place stands on a sandy plain not far from the sea-shore, producing only palm trees, millet, and a few herbs. Upon the whole, however, it is better situated than Madras, as during the S.W. monsoon, which is the season of naval warfare, it is to windward, an advantage of which the French experienced the benefit during the hard contested wars of the last century. As a commercial town it has no natural advantages, and when it ceased to be the capital of the French possessions in India, it soon fell to decay.

Pondicherry however is still (1820) a handsome city, the streets being of an uniform breadth, built with remarkable regularity, and intersecting each other at right angles. The houses are of a good height, with flat terraced roofs, the walls stuccoed white and yellow, and the whole free from any intermixture of huts or other native habitations. Nearly in the centre is a spacious square, laid out in walks shaded by rows of trees, with the government house on the north side, and on the east open to the sea. The black town lies to the south of the city, separated from it by a sort of fosse. It covers a great extent of ground, and is laid out with nearly the same regularity as the European quarter.

In 1758 the French ministry, confiding in the great force sent out under M. Lally, ordered him to destroy and dismantle all the British fortresses that might fall into his power, which he executed practically when he captured Fort St. David. A heavy retribution followed when Pondicherry was taken by Col. Coote in 1761. On this event the fortifications were levelled, and the ditch filled up by the removal of the glacis into it, from which destruction it never after completely recovered. Of the celebrated bound hedge no trace is now discernible, and an old brick tower (a fragment probably of the old citadel), where the flag is hoisted, is all that is left of the fortifications. The present government-house, a handsome building stuccoed with shell chunam, was erected after the restoration of the settlement to France; but the ruins of the convent of Capuchins still remain a monument of the sack.

The French first adventured to India in A.D. 1601, when two small ships were fitted out under the command of the Sieur Bardalieu, which were wrecked next year among the

Maldives, without reaching their destination. In 1604, Henry the Fourth of France incorporated the first French East-India Company, with a charter for fifteen years. In 1672 the French under M. Martin purchased from the king of Visiapoor (Bejapoor) a village on the coast called Pondicherry (Puducheri), with a small tract adjacent, where he effected a settlement, which soon became populous from the distracted state of the neighbouring countries. In 1693 the Dutch took Pondicherry, which they retained until the peace of Ryswick in 1697, when they were obliged to restore it, with the fortifications greatly improved.

On the 26th August 1748, Admiral Boscawen besieged Pondicherry with an army composed of 3,720 Europeans, 300 Topasses, and 2,000 Sepoys, and on the 6th October was compelled to raise the siege, having lost in the course of it 1,065 Europeans. The French garrison consisted of 1,800 Europeans and 3,000 Sepoys. M. Dupleix acted as governor during the siege, having been appointed in 1742, and held the reins until 1754, when he was removed. M. Lally landed at this settlement on the 28th February 1758, when an active war ensued between the French and British forces, which ended in the total ruin of the French and their adherents. Pondicherry surrendered to the British army under Col. Coote on the 16th January 1761, after a long and strict blockade. The total number of European military taken in the town, including artificers attached to the troops, was 2,072; the civil inhabitants were 381; the artillery fit for service 500 pieces of cannon, and 100 mortars and howitzers. The ammunition, fire-arms, weapons, and military stores, were in equal abundance.

At the peace of 1763 this fortress was restored to the French East-India Company, with the fortifications in a very dilapidated condition; but by great exertions, and the skill of the French engineers, they were again considerably strengthened. In October 1778 it surrendered to the army under Sir Hector Munro, after an obstinate defence, highly honourable to the governor, M. de Bellecombe. The garrison consisted of 3,000 men, of whom 900 were Europeans. The besieging army amounted to 10,500 men, of whom 1,500 were Europeans. At the peace of 1783 it was again transferred to the French; but on the breaking out of hostilities, surrendered to the British army on the 23d of August 1793. On this occasion the garrison consisted of 900 soldiers and 1,500 armed inhabitants.

During the peace, or rather truce of Amiens, Pondicherry was again restored to its former proprietors, at which period (1802) the inhabitants were estimated at 25,000, the revenue 40,000 pagodas per annum, and the extent of sea-coast five miles. On this event Buonaparte seems to have formed expectations of raising it to its ancient pre-eminence: but his plans were frustrated by the short duration of the peace, Pondicherry being again occupied by a British garrison in 1803. With them it remained during the long, hard-fought, and eventful war, finally terminated by the second peace of Paris in 1815, in consequence of which it was for the fourth time restored, with all due formalities, to its original owners. While under the British domination it was attached to the southern district of Arcot, and in 1817 yielded a gross revenue of 12,988 pagodas.

In 1820 Count Dupays was governor of the French settlements on the coast of Coromandel. By treaty they (the French) are debarred from restoring the fortifications of Pondicherry, or from maintaining any force there beyond what is necessary for the purposes of police. The renewal of the intercourse with the mother country had, up to the above date, given very little stimulus to commerce; the British fiscal regulations opposing an effectual barrier to any traffic with the interior, mercantile operations were in consequence almost limited to the consumption of

the place. There is still a mint here, where money is annually coined to the extent of nine lacks of rupees, rather of a superior standard to the Arcot rupee, but not received as such at any of the Madras treasuries. The principal places of worship now in use are, the church of the Jesuits, and the larger but less shewy church of the Capuchins, which belonged to the monastery of that order destroyed by the English. The buildings of the *ci-devant* Jesuits college are now occupied as dwelling-houses by the bishop and clergy.

Travelling distance from Madras, 100 miles; from Seringapatam, 260; from Hyderabad, 452; from Delhi, 1,400; from Calcutta. 1,130; from Nagpoor, 773; and from Poona, 707. —(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Orme, Macpherson, Rennell, &c.*)

PONDY ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, lying off the north-east point of Madura Island, about three miles in circumference, producing rice, and abounding with bullocks, sheep, and poultry. On this spot the best breed of horses in the Eastern islands is to be found. They are cheap, and form a principal article of exportation.

PONTIANA (*or Pontianak*). — A Dutch possession, acquired in 1776, on the west coast of Borneo; lat. 3° S., lon. 109° 30′ E. The bar at the entrance of the Lewa or Pontiana river has only from ten to twelve feet of water at high spring tides, but further up it is deep to a great distance, with a current of about three and a half miles per hour. The anchorage in the roads is safe and free from shoals, and the weather, even in October, is never so bad as to interrupt the regular intercourse between the ship and the shore. The town of Pontiana stands about twelve miles from its mouth, where there is a fort, and also some armed vessels stationed.

About twenty years ago, there were settled in the town and bounds of Pontiana about 3,000 Malays, 1,000 Buggesses, 100 Arabs, about 10,000 Chinese, besides a considerable number of slaves of various tribes and countries. In 1810 the imports in English bottoms amounted to 210,000 dollars, including ninety-five chests of opium, valued at 1,000 dollars each; the quantity of opium and piece-goods imported by the Buggesses was probably much greater. The Chinese junks come to Pontiana in February, and sail about the end of June, taking as a return cargo, gold, bird's-nests, sea-slug, fine camphor, wax-rattans, black wood, red wood, and sometimes opium, tin, and other articles. The soil about Pontiana is low and marshy, and is not so productive as the interior; but there is abundance of fish, and the Chinese raise much stock, more especially hogs.

This petty Malay state was founded in A.D. 1770 by Seid Abdul Rehman, whose father, Seid Hassan, was a native of Arabia, highly respected among the Malay rajas. The name Pontianak signifies a spectre of the forest, which appears in the form of a winged female. In 1812, after the conquest of Java by the British, the sultan of Pontiana dreading an attack from the chief of Sambas, applied for and received a British garrison. In September 1823 a Dutch expedition proceeded up the Pontiana river, to a distance of more than 300 miles, and returned in November, its object being to subjugate the independent states of Sangau, Sintang, and Silat, in which they succeeded. They are in consequence masters of the coast of Borneo, from the eastern confines of Banjarmassin to the northern boundary of Sambas, a space which includes the gold and silver mines, and a large population of Malays, Chinese, and Dayaks.—(*Leyden, Stavorinus, &c.*)

POOGUL.—A village in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Bicanere; lat. 28° 26′ N., lon. 72° 31′ E., forty-two miles N.W. from the town of Bicanere. This is one of the principal stages on the road through the desert to Bahawulpoor, as rain-water

is preserved here in small vaulted reservoirs, and sold to the caravans. There is well-water also, but it is rather brackish. This village belongs to Bicanere, and consists of a few miserable straw huts in the midst of a sea of sand, without a vestige of vegetation.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Pooloo Yoon (*Pulo Yun*).—A large island in the British district of Martaban, formed by two branches of the Martaban river, twenty miles long by about five in breadth, and the most populous part of the Martaban province. It is very productive of rice, for the cultivation of which it is singularly well adapted.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Poona (*Puna*).—A city in the province of Aurungabad, until 1818 the capital of the Maharatta empire, and since then of a British district; lat. 18° 30′ N., lon. 74° 2′ E. This place (emphatically termed the deish or native land of the Maharattas) is situated about thirty miles to the east of the ghauts, 100 road miles from Bombay, and seventy-five from the nearest sea-coast. It stands on an extensive plain very bare of trees, and elevated about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is surrounded by hills of the trap formation, with the singularly scarped form peculiar to that species of mountain, above one thousand feet higher. Many of these under the native regime were crowned with hill-forts, for which their form remarkably qualifies them, but the greater part have been destroyed, and abandoned as useless, or worse than useless, on the European system. The more inaccessible these fastnesses are from the plain, they are, under ordinary circumstances, the less valuable as depôts, as commanding great roads, and as facilitating the progress or manœuvres of a defensive army. Even separately, when considered as places of refuge, it may soon be discovered that the more steep and rugged mountains, in the ravines with which they abound, afford very secure approaches to the foot of the walls, completely covered from artillery, while the effects of a bombardment are in proportion destructive. The inequalities of the inner surface of a rocky hill-fort, keep a bomb-shell in constant motion until it explodes; the hollow parts, consequently, which are the most secure against shot, suffer most from a bombardment, which keeps the garrison in a state of incessant and harassing motion. Accordingly in the late wars, the loftily-perched fortresses fell successively, and in far less time than such towns as Belgaum and Bhurtpoor, seated on plains, although enclosing large areas, and partly defended by tanks.

Poona is built very much after the fashion of Oojein and Boorhanpoor, which are reckoned among the best built native cities of Hindostan. The great street is wide and handsome, and the mixture of rude paintings in illustration of mythological legends, with the carved frame-work of dark-coloured wood, give the fronts of the houses a fantastic, and at the same time cheerful appearance. The streets also are named after individuals of the Hindoo pantheon, adding the termination warry, equivalent to street, so that the history of the principal Brahminical deities may be learned while traversing the city. It is without walls or fort, the pagodas are few and not large, and it presents few traces of having been quite recently the capital and residence of a powerful sovereign.

The ancient palace or castle of Poona is surrounded by high thick walls, with four round towers, and has only one entrance through a pointed arch. In 1809 the Peshwa made arrangements for the erection of a palace, to be built by British architects, his highness defraying the expense. Preparatory to the construction of this edifice the ground was marked out, and according to Hindoo notions consecrated, by being plastered all over with a composition of cow-dung and ashes: but the design was never carried into effect. The view from the small temple on the apex of Parvati hill commands

the town, with all its gardens and plantations, the military cantonments, and British residency at the Sungum. At the bottom of the hill is a large square field, enclosed with high brick walls, where the Peshwa used to assemble the Brahmins, to whom he gave alms at the great feast, when the rainy season terminates, who on these occasions begged their way to Poona from all parts of Hindostan. When all assembled, they were shut in and marked, and as they came out one at a time, the gratuity was given to them. A dukhana, or distribution of alms to learned Brahmins, is still continued by the British government, but on a reduced scale, amounting to about 35,000 rupees annually. A Hindoo college has also been established here, at an expense of about 1,200 rupees per month. Close to the above field is the small unfinished palace of the Heera Baugh, the favourite country residence of the last Peshwa, with its cypress garden, artificial lake, and garden. To the east of the city is a mythological excavation of a very simple nature, apparently dedicated to Siva. In 1821 a college for the preservation and advancement of Hindoo learning was established here. There is also a spacious and convenient British church and a good library in the cantonments, for the use of the soldiers.

At Poona the Moota river joins the Moola, their union forming the Moota Moola, which flows into the Beema. The Beema afterwards proceeding on, forms a junction with the Krishna, by which route, during the rainy season, a journey by water in a light canoe may be effected from within seventy-five miles distance of the west coast of India to the bay of Bengal. The Moota washes the city on the north side, where it is about 200 yards broad, and in the dry monsoon very shallow. It was formerly intended to build a bridge over it; but the Peshwa who commenced the undertaking dying, and also his successor, the attempt was judged unpleasing to the gods, and abandoned. The piers of two bridges subsequently attempted may still be seen projecting above the surface of the water. The Sungum, where the British ambassador used to reside, is distant about two miles from the city; but the buildings here were entirely destroyed during the hostilities of 1818. In 1820 the civil establishment for administering the affairs of the conquered Maharatta districts occupied houses on the skirts of the cantonment, which were renovated and extended after the Peshwa's expulsion. On a high mountain south-west from Poona the formidable works of the fortress of Singhur are seen.

The ex-Peshwa, Bajerow, is the son of the famous Ragobah (or Ragoonauth Row), of evil memory. His predecessor Madhurow, the young peshwa, died suddenly in 1795, when this prince was raised to the sovereignty; but experienced many vicissitudes, having been repeatedly dethroned and reinstated by the chiefs of the different factions. His alliance with the British government in 1802, established his power on a solid foundation; but the perversity of his disposition urged him on to his overthrow. Although his family is Brahminical, yet not being of the highest order, the purer classes of Brahmins refused to eat with them; and at Nassuck, a place of pilgrimage near the source of the Godavery, Bajerow was not allowed to descend by the same flight of steps used by the holy priests.

The population of Poona is not so great as might be expected for the metropolis of so extensive an empire. In 1819 it was estimated by Mr. Elphinstone at only 110,000 persons, having diminished about one-eighth subsequent to the abrogation of the Maharatta dynasty. Formerly, at the festival of the Dusserah (about 13th October), the great Maharatta chiefs used to attend Poona, accompanied by prodigious crowds of their followers, by whom whole districts were devastated. Having celebrated the festival, they were accustomed to set out on their predatory excursions into the neighbouring countries, where

little distinction was made between friend and foe—a Maharatta being remarkably impartial in his robberies. On some occasions, when invaded, the Maharattas not thinking Poona worth preserving, have destroyed it with their own hands, after sending the archives and valuables to some strong hill-fortress; and in a state that can exist without a large capital, great advantage is gained in war by a release from such an encumbrance. In 1803, when menaced by Jeswunt Row Holcar and his sanguinary banditti, the Duke of Wellington, by a rapid advance and seasonable arrival, saved Poona from utter destruction. Travelling distance from Bombay, 98 miles; from Hyderabad, 387; from Oojein, 442; from Nagpoor, 486; from Delhi, 913; and from Calcutta, by Nagpoor, 1,208 miles.—(*Rennell, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, M. Graham, the Marquess of Wellesley, Moor, &c.*)

Poona.—A British district in the province of Aurungabad, formed out of the recent conquests from the Maharatta peshwa. This collectorate extends about fifty miles along the Western Ghauts; it is sixty-five miles broad in the centre, and about forty before it diminishes into a strip of about twelve miles. Its greatest length from east to west is ninety-five miles, and its medium length (exclusive of the strip at its eastern extremity) is sixty-eight miles. The hilly country west of Poona is named Mawul.

The general face of the country is mountainous and irregular, intersected by many rivers and streams. The vallies through which they flow are fertile, and, with some exceptions, well peopled. A few teak and poon trees are found among the mountains, but the timber is of small dimensions. The climate is good and invigorating, and suits Europeans better than many other provinces. The periodical rains are similar to those that prevail along the western coast; and a few showers from the monsoon of the other coast reach this, and are calculated upon by cultivators for the advancement of their crops. The majority of the inhabitants are Koonbies, or cultivators, generally small in person, although they eat animal food and drink spirituous liquors. The great body of the Maharatta peasantry are a simple and peaceable people; and there are few districts of equal extent and population in India where so few crimes are committed.

Poona is the only city in this district; but there are several respectable towns that carry on an inland traffic. The principal fabrics are coarse woollen and cotton cloths; in the capital there are also some silk-weavers, who vie with those of Puttun in manufacturing silken sarhees and other dresses, ornamented with the precious metals. The houses of the large towns are comfortable structures of stone and mud, covered with tiles, and sometimes two stories high. The most remarkable hills are usually distinguished by a fort or temple on the summit. The Syadurree range is probably not less than 2,800 feet above the level of the sea; while the hill-forts of Logur, Isaapoor, Kooaree, Singhur, and Poorunder are not less than 4,000 feet above the sea. The most sanctified hill is that where the river Beema takes its rise, this being supposed to be the very spot where the original Maha Deva Lingam fell. The other places of pilgrimage are Bheemsunkur, Eukoeerah, Deor (at the caves of Carli), Alindee, Igooree, Moreishwur, &c. The gods, great and small, worshipped at these places are innumerable; in fact, the whole Hindoo pantheon under diversely spelled names. One object of worship is said to be a stone that melts into water by the heat of the moonbeams.

The country is subdivided into villages, with and without other dependent villages and hamlets. From forty to ninety villages compose a turruf or mahal. The largest mahal of each turruf is called a cusba, and is the market town of the division; five to seven turrufs form a soubah, pranth,

or desh. The boundary lines of a village are usually some natural limit, such as the course of a stream, and the ridges of mountains and hills. The villages are for the most part open; some, however, have good walls of mud and stone, strong enough to afford defence against the attacks of predatory cavalry. The proportions of the different soils are, black land, eight; mixed soil, three; red soil, four; rice grounds in the ghauts, one; being in all, sixteen. Of garden cultivation the poportion may be about one-tenth of the whole.

The revenue of this district was settled many years ago by Mallik Amber, the celebrated Deccany financier, whose plan of assessment was the same as that of Toodur Mull, under the Emperor Acber, *viz.* a money rent, which varied with the produce of the year.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c,*)

POONAKHA.—A town in Bootan, the winter residence of the Deb raja, situated on a peninsula, washed on two sides by the Matchieu and Patchieu rivers, immediately before their junction; lat. 27° 58′ N., lon. 89° 54′ E., seventeen miles N.E. from Tassisudon. This being the warmest part of Bootan, it has been selected for the cultivation of exotics from the south. The palace of Poonakha resembles that of Tassisudon, but is rather more spacious, and has in the same manner its citadel and gilded canopy.—(*Turner, &c.*)

POONAMALLEE.—A town in the Carnatic province, fifteen miles W.S.W. from Madras; lat. 13° 2′ N., lon. 80° 8′ E.

POONASSA.—A town in the province of Malwa, with a good fort of masonry, thirteen miles travelling distance from Moondver. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia.

POONDUR.—A remote and barbarous country in Northern Hindostan, situated among the hills, between the Sutuleje and Jumna, the real circumstances of which are but imperfectly known. At present it is said to consist of three division: 1st. Mutteallа, being that portion lying east of the Gobleе stream; 2d. Gaveel; 3d. Joobur. The principal village is Mutteallа, containing thirty-five houses or families; and there are ten other hamlets, each containing only four families. Gaveel is the next largest village, having twenty-five families and Joobur eighteen. These three divisions have scarcely any political connexion, but on some occasions the nead men act together, such as in arranging the proportion of tribute to be borne by each, or when co-operating against invasion. None of these head men, however, on account of their caste and family, could aspire to the rank of rana, being all of the Kunait division of the Chullee class, formed by intermarriages with the lower castes; an unblemished Rajpoot descent being an indispensable qualification for the dignity of thakoor, rana, or sole ruler of the most insignificant state among the hills.

This tract was never entirely reduced by the Gorkha power, the independent and ferocious character of the inhabitants enabling them to make a protracted resistance. During the inroads of 1810, 1811, and 1812, undertaken more for the purpose of chastisement of that settlement, the Gorkhas levied 15,000 3,000, and 5,000 rupees value, by the seizure of grain, cattle, money, and property of every description, but the last year the country was utterly exhausted. During the respite it has enjoyed since the Gorkha expulsion, it has somewhat recovered by the return of emigrants, yet in 1815 the whole district contained only 160 occupied dwellings.

Poondur devolved to the British government in consequence of there being no living representative of the ancient reigning family, but its relation to the superior state is of a very anamolous and embarrassing nature, being more like the dependence of a tributary republic, devoid of internal organization, than an annexation of country amenable to British jurisdic-

tion, and susceptible of regular settlement. In 1816 the inhabitants of Poondur were still in the habit of receiving from the adjacent villages of Koteghur and Joobul, a sort of black mail, as a price of their forbearance to plunder and to burn. Under these circumstances it became a public duty incumbent on the British goverment to compel Poondur, should compulsion be necessary, to become an orderly and peaceful member of the hill states, the mere desire of liberty for the purpose of infesting their neighbours not appearing entitled to much respect.

On the other hand Poondur, notwithstanding its insignificant population, possessed great capabilities for maintaining a prolonged opposition, as on any hostile approach the inhabitants were accustomed to forsake their dwellings, concealing under ground their grain and such valuables as they could not carry away. They then retired to woods and fastnesses, where it was utterly fruitless to follow them, from whence they sallied out during the night, cut off stragglers and out-posts, and harrassed small convoys. In 1816 Sir David Ochterlony recommended the transfer of this turbulent community to the chief of Keonthul, as, if left to itself, it would prove a scourge to the surrounding states, and a scene of sanguinary anarchy within. The objection to this arrangement was the impractibility of reducing the people generally to submit to the rule of any single individual; but it appeared evident that no degree of opposition likely to be made to the thakoor of Keonthul would require a greater exertion of military coercion, than would inevitably be necessary to establish any kind of supremacy, not excepting that of the British government. —(*Public MS. Documents, Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

POORBUNDER.—A large and populous town built on a creek of the sea, on the south-west coast of the Gujerat peninsula, fifty-eight miles S.E. from Juggeth Point; lat. 21° 39′ N., lon. 69° 45′ E. This petty maritime state is centrally situated, about half way between Diu and the north-western extremity of the penin[illegible] In 1812 it contained eighty inhabited villages, two fortresses, and eleven ghurries or places with four towers. The total population was estimated at 75,000 persons; the number of ploughs 3,000. The surrounding country has a level appearance, with the exception of one range of mountains, about fourteen miles distant from the town.

Poorbunder is an emporium for Gujerat and Malwa, with Persia and Arabia. To Muscat the exports are cotton, thread, wheat, oil, and bajeree; the imports from thence, madder, raisins, and sumra. To Bombay the exports are cotton and grain; the imports sugar, iron, steel, tin, lead, cloths, China-ware, broad-cloths, pepper, spices, rice, &c. in small quantities. The easy access to the Poorbunder territory and towns, and the facility of shipping cotton, give it a preference over any other town on this coast, and its position to the west of Bombay enables vessels to leave it at a later period, and effect their passage at the opening of the monsoon, while the passage to Bombay from the ports more to the eastward is, at the latter end of May, rendered dangerous and precarious, owing to the wind hanging so much to the southward. From its geographical position also, a military force stationed at Poorbunder is enabled to control a line of coast from Bate to Diu.

The modern port of Poorbunder was established on the site of the ancient city of Sudamapura, mentioned in the Bhagvat Geeta as having been suddenly transformed from a small village to a city of gold by the deity Krishna, in order to gratify his old friend and companion Sudama. Within the territories of this small principality the Mhers and Robaries form an original and singular institution of a standing or national militia, who are the organs of public opinion, and the pillars of the state. The Robaries are cowherds; the Mhers pretend to be a caste of Rajpoots; but

by the genuine Hindoos they are scarcely considered within the pale of the Brahminical religion. Both tribes are supposed to muster together from 3,000 to 4,000 men. The reigning family are of the Jaitwar tribe, and claim a descent from Hunimaun the gigantic monkey, and prime minister to the great Rama, and though not jahrejahs, so fascinating does the practice of evil appear to be, that it could be established by evidence that no grown up daughters had appeared in the family for more than 100 years. They are still distinguished by the name of the tailed ranas, from a supposed elongation of the spinal bone.

On a high mountain in this district, visible from Bhattia, once stood the city of Goomty, the metropolis of the ranas of Poorbunder, when their sway extended throughout the western regions of the Gujerat peninsula. It was destroyed by Jam Bhamenee, who invaded the country from Sinde for the purpose of overturning the Poorbunder principality. Legendary tales and songs narrate their passage of the Runn at Mallia, which may be deemed evidence of the extent of that curious swamp at an early period. In 1809 this petty state was placed under the tributary protection of the British government, who delegated the management of its affairs to Sunderjee Sewjee, a respectable merchant.—(*Walker, Maxfield, Macmurdo, Pottinger, Schuyler, &c.*)

Poorna River (*purana, full*).—A river of the Deccan which has its source among the Injardy hills, from whence it flows west through the province of Berar until it falls into the Tuptee about twenty miles below Boorhanpoor. There is also another river of the same name that traverses Berar in an opposite direction.

Poorunpoor.—A town in the province of Delhi, forty-eight miles E. by N. from Bareily; lat. 28° 32′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E.

Poorwa.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles N.W. from Bellary; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

Poorwah (*Purva*).—A town in the province of Oude, twenty-nine miles S.S.W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 30′ N., lon. 80° 37′ E.

Poosa Saolee.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, seventy-three miles S.S.E. from Poona; lat. 17° 32′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E. It consists of two parallel streets tolerably wide, and belongs to the raja of Satara.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Pooshkur (*pushkara, a lake, reservoir or tank*).—A celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage in the province of Ajmeer, four miles west from the city of that name. The town which is not large stands on the shore of a romantic lake, from which the name is derived. The late Dowlet Row Sindia had a house and garden at this place, which besides its sanctity is remarkable for its beauty and fertility.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Pootoor.—A village in the province of Canara, twenty-five miles S.E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 46′ N., lon. 75° 18′ E. The face of the country betwixt this place and Mangalore is much broken, full of barren hills, round which the vallies wind like the beds of rivers. These windings have every appearance of having been effected by an ingress of the sea, and the hills are formed of a sort of loamy clay, which on exposure becomes hard as a rock. They are quite naked near the sea, but towards the great ghaut range are covered with trees. This composition is well adapted for the construction of roads, which are easily made in the form of pavements, and will last for years without requiring repairs. It suits well also for the erection of fortifications, for although hard it does not splinter, and most of the houses in this quarter are built of it.—(*Colonel Lambton, &c.*)

Poovaloor.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, twenty-one miles N. from the city of Tanjore; lat. 11° N., lon. 79° 8′ E.

Popo Isle.—An island in the East-

ern seas, fifty miles in circumference, and situated about the 130th degree of east longitude. The two clusters of islands named Bo and Popolo lie nearly in the same parallel of latitude, the latter being of a more mountainous surface than the former. They are inhabited, and afford a supply of coco-nuts, salt, and dried fish. —(*Forrest, &c.*)

Porassa.—A town in the province of Malwa, ten miles travelling distance from Dewass. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained about 400 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Porca.—A town on the sea-coast of Travancore, 134 miles N.W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 16′ N., lon. 76° 24′ E. This is a populous place, inhabited by many Mahomedan, Hindoo, and Christian merchants. The adjacent country produces abundance of rice, and may be called the granary of Malabar. The Dutch East-India Company had formerly a factory here for the purpose of procuring pepper.—(*Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

Poro Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, named also Pulo Sepora, or the island of good fortune, situated off the south-western coast of Sumatra, N.W. of the Poggy isles, and inhabited by the same race, with the same manners and language. In A.D. 1750, when Poro was visited by Mr. John Saul, the towns or villages contained nearly 1,000 inhabitants; and in 1757, when Captain Forrest made his inquiries, there was not any material alteration. In length it may be estimated at thirty-three miles, by eight the average breadth, and it is described as being almost entirely covered with wood.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

Portonovo.—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic province, thirty-two miles south from Pondicherry; lat. 11°30′ N., lon. 79°50′ E. This was formerly a large and wealthy town, but has never recovered from the effects of Hyder's invasion in 1782. It is now comparatively poor and depopulated, still occupying a great extent of space, but containing very few good native dwellings, and displaying none of the bustle of a sea-port. The actual number of inhabitants in 1820 were estimated at 10,000, of whom one-half (including all the mercantile and seafaring classes) were Lubbies, or Mahomedan merchants.

The river Velaur discharges itself into the sea below Portonovo after much meandering through the sand. It is a stream of some breadth, but shallow, and at most seasons easily fordable, affording shelter only to boats and small craft. All large vessels anchor without, and discharge their cargoes beyond the bar. The Danes have an old factory here, and the Dutch have the ruins of one. For many years no use has been made of either, but both nations continue to keep up their prescriptive title through the agency of a native, who hoists a flag on their premises every Sunday. This place is also named Mahmoodbunder and Feringhpett, and its neighbourhood was the scene of a battle in 1782 between Sir Eyre Coote and Hyder, in which the latter was defeated.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Porvear.—A small town on the sea-coast of Travancore, thirty miles W.N W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 17′ N., lon. 72° 22′ E.

Positra.—A town and fortress, formerly piratical, in the Gujerat peninsula, division of Okamundel, eighteen miles N.E. from Juggeth point. The gopee chundian, or white clay for marking the forehead, taken from a holy tank near Positra, sells at Bombay for six rupees per maund. —(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Powanghur.—Named also Chumpaneer, which see.

Pownee.—A fortified town in the province of Gundwana, thirty-one miles S.E. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 20° 55′ N., lon. 79° 42′ E. It was captured by a small British detachment in 1818.

Pratas Isles.—Clusters of islands, shoals, and large rocks of considerable extent in the Eastern seas,

being six leagues from north to south, and stretching three or four leagues to the eastward; lat. 23° 50′ N., lon. 116° 45′ E.

PRAW THAUNGY (*or the three pagodas*).—A station on the frontier of British Martaban towards Siam, which marks the boundaries of the two nations in this quarter, ninety-four direct and 134 travelling miles to the eastward of Moulmein. As an approximation to the reality the site of Praw Thaungy may be placed in 15° 30′ N., lon. 99° E.

These pagodas are nothing more than three cairns of loose stones piled up in the form of pyramids, a few feet distant from each other, the highest being about twenty feet. The central one is neutral ground, and marked the old frontier between the Siamese and Burmese. In 1827 Mr. Leal marched from hence to the village and river of Singola in two hours and a half. This river is one of the contributors to the Meklong, which joins the Menam near to Bankok, the capital of Siam. By the Siamese this post is named Phra-chai-di-sam-sug.—(*Mr. Leal, Capt. Burney, &c.*)

PREPARIS ISLES.—A cluster of small islands situated midway between the Andamans and Cape Negrais, the south-western extremity of India beyond the Ganges; lat. 14° 50′ N., lon. 93° 25′ E. The two small islets named the Cow and Calf appear to be 200 feet above the level of the sea. The principal island is of a gently undulating shape, rising gradually to a moderate elevation, and thickly covered with wood. It does not appear that they have any permanent inhabitants.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

PRIAMAN.—A town on the S.W. coast of Sumatra; lat. 0° 36′ S., lon. 99° 43′ E. In 1685 this was the East-India Company's chief settlement on the island, the troops embarked to form the garrison amounting to 300 men, and the artillery to forty-nine pieces of ordnance.

PRIANGEN REGENCIES.—In the island of Java, south-east of the Batavia district, lie what are termed by Europeans the Priangen Regencies, the central and southern divisions of which, stretching from Bantam to Cheribon, are extremely mountainous. The exterior province, which now includes a large portion of Cheribon, consists of the districts of Krawang, Chiasem, Pamanukan, Kandangaur, and Indramayu, along the north coast, besides the inland and southern districts of Kiangur, Bandung, Samadang, Limbangan, and Sukapura, the southern coast from the frontiers of Bantam being included within the divisions of Chiangur and Sakapura.

Each of these regencies in 1815 was administered by a native chief immediately dependent on government, and without authority beyond his district, so that their power never became formidable to any European government. According to a census taken by the British functionaries at the above date, the Priangen Regencies contained a population of 243,628 persons, of which number 180 were Chinese, inhabiting an area of 10,002 square miles.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND (*named also Pulo Penang, or betel-nut island*)—An island situated off the west coast of the Malay peninsula, having its north-eastern point in lat. 5° 25′ N., lon. 100° 19′ E.

This island is an irregular four-sided figure, and computed to contain about 160 square miles. Throughout the centre there is a range of lofty hills, decreasing in altitude as they approach the south, and from these flow several fine streams, which supply the island abundantly with water. The highest point is that on which the flag staff is placed, by barometrical estimation 2,248 feet above the level of the ocean. It is named Penang (the areca or betel-nut) by the Malays, from some imaginary resemblance its shape bears to that fruit, although it produces none.

The sea here is placid and serene

throughout the whole year, storms being only felt as it were by reflection, affecting the tides and sometimes producing a smooth swell. Among the islands the tides are remarkably irregular, sometimes running in one direction for several successive days, and in narrow channels with frightful rapidity, resembling the opening of a sluice. The periodical effect of the monsoons is but little felt, the winds partaking more of the nature of land and sea breezes. The harbour is formed by a strait about two miles across that separates the north side of the island from the Queda shore. It is capacious, affords good anchorage for the largest ships, and is so well defended from the winds that accidents scarcely ever occur. Violent squalls are occasionally experienced, but they rarely last more than an hour.

With the exception of January and February, which are the dry and hot months, the island is seldom a few days without rain; the heaviest falls in November and December. On the top of Flag-staff hill the thermometer never rises beyond 78° Fahrenheit, seldom to 74°, and falls to 66°: while on the plain it ranges from 76° to 90°. From the dawn of day until the sun has emerged above the high mountains of Queda, the air in George Town is comparatively cool. It's distance from the base of the hills is five miles, and from thence to the flag-staff is three more.

The island of Penang is entirely composed of granite, varying considerably in the fineness of the grain, and sometimes containing hornblende, or becoming what would be designated syenite. The soil is various, generally a light black mould mixed with gravel and clay, and in many parts sandy. The whole island had for ages been covered by an immense forest, from which a fine vegetable mould, originally formed by decayed leaves, which, as the woods were cleared, and the surface exposed, in a considerable degree disappeared, but the soil of the interior is still equal to any sort of cultivation. These forests produce excellent timber for ship-building, and supply masts of any dimensions. Much of the north and nearly the whole of the south and east are under cultivation, the principal productions being pepper, betel-nut, betel-leaf, coco-nuts, coffee, sugar, rice, ginger, yams, sweet potatoes. The fruits are mangosteens, rambosteens, pine-apples, guavas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, &c. The exotics raised here are cloves, nutmegs, cinnamon, pimento, cayaputty, cololava, and many other plants from the Moluccas and Eastern isles. Pepper is the staple article of which in 1804 two millions of pounds were raised.

The elastic gum vine (the *urceola elastica*), or American caoutchouc, is found in great plenty on Prince of Wales' Island. It is about the thickness of the arm, almost round, with a strong ash-coloured bark, much cracked, and divided longitudinally, with points at small distances that send out roots, but seldom branches. It creeps along the ground to the distance of 200 paces, and then ascends among the branches of high trees. The milky juice of the vine is drawn off by wounding the bark, or by cutting the vine in pieces. The best is procured from the oldest vines, which will yield two-thirds of their weight of gum, the chemical properties of which surprisingly resemble those of milk.

The fort here is ill-built, and incapable of defence from its size and construction; the sea has also been making rapid encroachments on it The public roads are wide, and extend many miles round the town, and there are several good bridges over the river, erected by the Company's artificers and Bengal convicts, who also made the bricks. The markets are supplied with fish of various kinds, poultry of all sorts, pork, grain of every description, and a profusion of fine fruits and vegetables. The beef and veal are not of a good quality; sheep are imported from Bengal; goat-mutton from the Malay peninsula and Sumatra. Milk, butter, and

bread, especially the two first, are dear and scarce.

Almost all the country ships bound to the eastward, particularly those for China, touch here, where they refresh and purchase such additional articles of trade as they have room for. The East-India Company's ships bound to China touch also here, and trade in large quantities of tin, canes, rattans, sago, betel-nut, biche-de-mar, bird's-nests, and pepper (except the last all previously imported), for the China market, as also to serve as dunnage for the tea cargoes to Europe. In 1822 the total imports were valued at 2,662,558 Spanish dollars; and it was then asserted that the trade of Pulo Penang had not fallen off in consequence of the colonization of Singapoor in 1819. Twenty-eight chests of opium are annually imported for the Malay and Chinese inhabitants, from the monopoly of which a revenue of 40,000 dollars is derived by the government, each chest yielding by retail about 9,600 dollars, or twenty-five thousand per cent. above the prime cost. Tin has been found here, but the ore being of difficult access, the mines cannot be worked to advantage. Some ore that was smelted yielded fifty-three per cent.; or about ten per cent. less than that produced by the ores of Junk Ceylon, Perak, and Salengore.

The settlement here was originally established at an enormous expense, with the view of its becoming a great ship-building depôt and arsenal; but so little did it ultimately answer this expectation, that in 1807 it was stated by the civil architect at Prince of Wales' Island, that a ship built there would cost three times as much as one built at Rangoon or Bassein.

From the appearance of many portions of the interior, and the number of tombs that were discovered soon after the colony was established, the tradition of its having been formerly inhabited seems to be entitled to credit: when occupied, however, there were only a few miserable fishermen found on the sea-coast. In 1785 it was granted to Capt. Francis Light, of a country ship, by the King of Queda, as a marriage portion with his daughter. Capt. Light transferred it to the East-India Company, and being appointed governor, took possession on the 12th September 1786. The early settlers had great difficulties to contend with; an immense forest was to be cut down, swamps to be drained, and ravines filled up. It was agreed to pay 6,000 dollars to the king of Queda, as an indemnification for the loss of revenue he was likely to sustain, which in 1800 was raised to 10,000 dollars, on account of some territorial cessions on the main-land, now named Wellesley province.

Capt. Light died in 1794, and was succeeded by Mr. Manningham, who died soon after in Bengal. In 1796 Major Macdonald took charge of the government, and died at Madras in 1799. He was succeeded by Sir George Leith, who lived and returned to Europe. The Hon. C. A. Bruce, brother to the Earl of Elgin, arrived as governor in March 1810, and died the next December, universally regretted. After a short interregnum, Mr. Petrie of Madras assumed the reins of government, but died in 1817. His successor, Col. Bannerman, of the East-India direction, lived until 1819; governor Macalister went to sea and was never heard of, but governor Philips survived, returned to Europe, and is still alive. On the 28th August 1824 Robert Fullerton, Esq., of the Madras council, took his seat as governor of Penang, and according to the latest advices was not dead.

Population of Prince of Wales' Island and its dependencies up to the 31st December 1822.

Malays and Buggesses	24,520
Acheenese	551
Battas (Sumatrans)	924
Chinese	8,900
Chulias	6,915
Bengalese	1,670
Burmese and Siamese	819
Arabians	153
Armenians	19
Carried forward ...	44,471

Brought forward ...	44,471
Parsees	13
Native Christians	1,172
Caffres	119
	45,775
Floating population......	2,000
Military, followers, and convicts	3,032
Europeans and their descendants	400
Grand total ...	51,207

On account of the Siamese invasion, large emigrations had taken place in the above year from the Queda country, and of the above 51,207, about eleven thousand inhabited the province of Point Wellesley on the main land. Such a variety of different races are congregated here, that it is said there are twenty-two languages spoken on Prince of Wales' Island.—(*Sir G. Leith, Public MS. Documents, Elmore, Howison, Marsden, Johnson, Finlayson, &c.*)

PRINCES ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, situated off the north-westernmost extremity of Java; lat. 6° 30′ S., lon. 105° 12′ E. The land is in general low and woody; the highest eminence is called by the English the Pike. In 1694 it was uninhabited, but it now contains a town named Samadang, divided into two parts by a stream of brackish water. Turtle may be had here, as also fish, deer, plantains, pine-apples, rice of the mountain kind, yams, and other vegetables.—(*Stavorinus, Wilcocke, &c.*)

PROBOLINGO.—A district in the island of Java, which comprehends the subdivisions of Besuki, Panarucan, Lamajang, and Pugar, the whole 2,854 square miles. The population is scanty, compared with the extent of surface: yet the soil is well supplied with moisture, and spare land abundant. In the tracts next Besuki there are extensive teak forests. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the Probolingo district contained 104,359 inhabitants, of which number 1,430 were Chinese. The town of Probolingo is situated on the north coast of Java, 600 miles travelling distance east from Batavia, and fifty-two miles S E. from Sourabaya; lat. 7° 40′ S., lon. 113° 12′ E. This district was purchased from the old Dutch government by a Chinese for ten millions of rix-dollars, payable by instalments. It was then mostly waste.—(*Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

PROME.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, of which it was the original and natural boundary to the south; lat. 18° 45′ N., lon. 95° 5′ E., 162 miles map distance N.N E. from Rangoon. By the Burmese it is usually named Peeaye, or by contraction Pea.

Two days' march eastward of Prome, towards Tongho, is over a rich and fertile country, covered with productive rice plains; further east the signs of industry and population decrease, the surface then presenting the appearance of a luxuriant wilderness, overgrown with lofty forests, reeds, and high brushwood jungle, with a few miserable hamlets scattered about at remote distances. The Irawady here overflows its banks, and inundates the town; but it is viewed by the inhabitants, a half amphibious race, with indifference, or rather joy, as it sweeps away the filth of eight months' accumulation from under the houses, which are raised on posts, thereby purifying the atmosphere, and extinguishing a variety of execrable smells. During the war two small gun-brigs were brought up the Irawady as high as Prome, after a very long passage, owing to the extreme violence of the current.

In 1795 Prome was reckoned larger and more populous than Rangoon, but in 1809 had greatly decayed. When captured by the British in 1825, the houses and property of the natives who had fled were taken care of, and proclamations issued inviting them to return. The result was that they poured in from the jungles, with their families, cattle, and waggons,

so that ere long Prome had not only recovered from the devastating system of the Burmese leaders, but attained a greater magnitude than it ever possessed before. After quitting this place the army marched 140 miles north from Prome without meeting with an inhabitant, or being able to procure one day's supply from a country before abounding in cattle, so effectually had the enemy succeeded in laying waste the line of advance.—(*Snodgrass, Trant, Symes, Canning, &c.*)

PUARI.—A village in the district of Kunawur, north of the Himalaya, in 1819 the patrimonial village of Fikam Das, called by the mountaineers the vizier of the Bussaher Raja; lat. 31° 33′ N., lon. 78° 17′ E. The Sutuleje here is comparatively smooth and placid, and has a considerable breadth.—(*Herbert, &c.*)

PUBNA (*Pavana*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajeshahy, sixty-three miles E. from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° N., lon. 89° 12′ E.

PUCHWARA.—A town in the province of Malwa, division of Omutwara, which in 1820 belonged to the rawul of Rajghur; lat. 23° 43′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E.

PUCHESUR.—A village in Northern Hindostan, situated at the confluence of the Sarjew and Cali rivers; lat. 29° 27′ N., lon. 80° 15′ E.

PUCHINEE.—A village or hamlet in the Morung, thirty miles S.W. from Dellamcotta; lat. 26° 44′ N., lon. 82° 26′ E.

PUCHMURRY.—A table-land in the province of Gundwana, about thirty miles in circumference, where Appa Saheb, the ex-raja of Nagpoor, spent the rainy season of 1818. The village of Puchmurry stands in a plain scattered over with numerous rocks of fantastic shapes, and surrounded by high mountains (the Mahadeo hills) of difficult access. The Deo Pahar cave, sacred to Siva, is three miles distant; and in its vicinity is a high mountain from whence devotees, to expiate their sins, precipitate themselves during a festival which takes place in February. From a crevice or cave in the rocks, about forty-four feet deep, a stream of holy water issues in which Hindoo pilgrims perform their ablutions, and invoke the presiding deity (Siva), but there are not any temples or sculptures to mark it as a place of religious celebrity.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

PUCHUM.—By this name the large portion of the Runn, that bounds Cutch to the north, and separates it from the sandy desert of Chalchkaun, is known. Being less marshy and barren than the rest, it exhibits spots under cultivation, and affords pasturage to numerous flocks of different kinds. It is principally occupied by the Sumas, a tribe of Sindeans, who are supposed capable of furnishing on an emergency 5,000 fighting men. The chief town, or rather village, is named Kowrah.—(*Colonel Walker, &c.*)

PUCHPAHAR.—A small town in the province of Malwa, the capital of a tract of country added to the dominions of the Kotah raja in 1818; lat. 25° 1′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E.

PUCKELY (*Paxali*).—This division occupies the north-western corner of the Lahore province, where it is enclosed on three sides by the Indus and Jhylum rivers, and by Abul Fazel, in 1582, described as follows:—"Circar Puckely measures in length thirty-five, and in breadth twenty-five coss. On the east lies Cashmere, on the north Kinore, on the south the country of the Gehker (Guckers) tribe, and on the west is Attock Benares. Timour left a small number of troops here to keep possession of this quarter, and some of their descendants are here to this day. Snow is continually falling on the mountains of Puckely, and sometimes in the plains. The winter is very severe, but the summer heat moderate. Like Hindostan, Puckely has periodical rains. Here are three rivers, the Kishengunga, the

Behut, and the Sinde. The language of the inhabitants has no affinity with those of Cashmere, Zabulistan, or Hindostan. Nakhud and barley are the most plentiful grains here. Apricots, peaches, and walnuts grow wild. Formerly the rajas of this country were tributary to Cashmere."

The whole of this tract in modern times lies to the east of the Indus, but there is reason to suppose that it formerly comprehended a tract to the west of that river. According to Mr. Elphinstone, the territory is at present partitioned into the following smaller subdivisions, *viz.* Drumtour, or the country of the Jadoons, possessed by a branch of the Yusephzei Afghans; north of it is Turnaul, a woody and mountainous tract, which confines on the north to Puckely Proper, a country of the same description, but much more extensive. It is inhabited by the Sewadies or Swatics, and is under a governor appointed by the Afghan sovereign of Cabul. All these divisions stretch along the Indus until hemmed in on the north by the snowy mountains. The common road from Cashmere to the Indus lies through the Puckely territory; but the inhabitants are so notorious for a fierce and predatory disposition, that the route is generally esteemed too hazardous.—(*Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, Rennell, Foster. &c.*)

PUCULOE.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, thirty-four miles N.N.W. from the city of Dacca; lat. 24° 8′ N., lon. 89° 55′ E.

PUDUCOTTA.—A town in the Carnatic province, the capital of Tondiman's country, about thirty-four miles travelling distance from the fort of Trichinopoly; lat. 10° 18′ N., lon. 78° 58′ E. Tondiman's palace here consists of an irregular congregation of detached edifices, with a fine tank and handsome Hindoo temple, all within the same enclosure. Chevamundaporum, a place in the woods, about three miles distant from Puducotta, was formerly the royal residence; but it has long gone to ruin, and is now only frequented by wild beasts.

The modern town of Puducotta is remarkable for its wide, regular, and clean streets, intersecting each other at right angles. The houses are of moderate dimensions, generally stuccoed, whitened, and tiled, and a few of the most respectable with terraced roofs. A thick jungle encompasses the town on all sides for the depth of a mile, and is its only defence, it being without fortifications, not even a mud wall, which sufficiently proves its erection having taken place subsequent to the establishment of the British authority. About a mile and half to the south-west of his capital, Tondiman has an excellent house, built and furnished after the English fashion, where every respectable European traveller is sure of meeting with a hospitable reception. This town is still erroneously placed in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, Blackburne, &c.*)

PUNDERPOOR.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, situated on the left bank of the Mahanuddy river, which when it devolved to the British government, in 1818, was found in a state of utter desolation.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

PUNDUMPOOR.—A small town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, situated about eight miles travelling distance from the city of Cuttack.

PUGAR.—A subdivision of the Probolingo district, in the island of Java, situated at the eastern extremity, which, including Bandwasa, occupies a large area; but it is scantily inhabited, although the soil is adequately supplied with moisture and naturally fertile. Indeed, with a greater population, it might be rendered very valuable.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

PULEHRA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-one miles N.W. from Chatterpoor; lat 25° 2′ N., lon. 79° 19′ E.

PULICAT (*Paliacala*).—A town

on the sea-coast of the Carnatic province, twenty-three miles N. from Madras; lat. 13° 25′ N., lon. 80° 24′ E. The lake of Pulicat, on which it stands, appears to owe its existence to the sea breaking through a low sandy beach, and overflowing the lands within. Its communication with the sea-shore is extremely narrow; in length from north to south it is about forty miles, by six in the greatest breadth. The ordinary road from Nellore passes westward of it, at the distance of about eighteen miles from the sea; but travellers lightly equipped sometimes prefer the shorter route along the shore, and are ferried across the openings. The Dutch established themselves here so early as A.D. 1609, when they built a square fort named Geldria, to which, after the loss of Negapatam, the chief government of their settlements on the coast of Coromandel was transferred.—(*Rennell, Fra. Paolo, Wilks, &c.*)

PULLASNEER.—A large village, with a mud ghurry, in the province of Candeish, situated on the declivity of the Satpoora mountains, and commanding the ghaut or pass of Sindivah, from which town it is distant ten miles; lat. 21° 31′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

PULNEY.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, thirty miles S.W. from Dindigul; lat. 10° 23′ N., lon. 77° 35′ E.

PULO BRASSE.—An island, about ten miles in circumference, lying off the north-western extremity of Sumatra; lat. 5° 39′ N., lon. 95° 30′ E.

PULO BANIACK.—A small island, about twenty-five miles in circumference, situated off the west coast of Sumatra, between the second and third degrees of north latitude.

PULO DAMMER.—An island in the Eastern seas, about thirty miles in circumference, situated off the southern extremity of Gilolo; lat. 1° S., lon. 128° 25′ E.

PULO CANNIBAZ.—A small island on the south coast of Java, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at twenty miles, by six the average breadth; lat. 7° 50′ S., lon. 109° 25′ E.

PULO CONDORE ISLES.—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, situated off the south coast of Cambodia; lat. 8° 40′ N., lon. 106° 42′ E. The principal island is twelve miles in length, and about three in breadth.

This island is in the form of a crescent, and consists of a ridge of peaked hills. On the east side of the island there is a spacious bay with good anchorage, near a village situated on a sandy beach. The inhabitants are mostly refugees from Cochin China, and are capable of supplying ships with some refreshments. Their flat faces and little long eyes denote a Chinese origin, but the spoken language of China is not intelligible to them. When the matter is written to them in Chinese characters it is perfectly intelligible. The East India Company had a settlement here until A.D. 1704, when an insurrection took place among the Malay soldiers, who first set fire to the warehouses, and then murdered Mr. Catchpool, the governor, and a greater part of the English on the island. To this treachery the Malays are supposed to have been instigated by the Cochin Chinese, in order to obtain possession of the Company's treasury, estimated at 22,000 taels.—(*Staunton, Bruce, &c.*)

PULO MINTAOU.—An island lying off the west coast of Sumatra, about the 98th degree of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by twelve miles the average breadth.

PULO CIECER DE MER.—A small island on the coast of Cochin China, about two leagues long, which from its having a hill on each extremity resembles two islands. Birds'-nests and biche-de-mar, are procured here by the Cochin Chinese.

Pulo Kra *(or Monkey Islands)*.—Two very small islands in the Eastern seas, lying off the Junjong river, in the Malay peninsula, province of Wellesley, a few miles S.E. of Prince of Wales' Island.

Pulo Oby *(or Yam Island)*.—A small island, six miles long, in the Eastern seas, situated off the southern extremity of Cambodia, the commencement of a beautiful archipelago, from hence to Cape Liant in Siam. In 1820 it contained only three Chinese fishers of biche-de-mar from Hainan, and a Chinese deity. It stands in lat. 8° 25′ N., lon. 104° 50′ E., and is a land-mark of departure for the Chinese junks, having a peaked hill 200 feet high. It is named Yam Island, from the roots which are found wild, and dug up of the most gigantic dimensions.

Puloron Isle.—One of the smallest of the Banda isles, named by all the early navigators Puloroon; lat 5° 35′ N., lon. 129° 45′ E. The English East-India Company obtained possession of this island, but were repeatedly expelled by the Dutch. In 1665 it was formally delivered up by the Dutch to the English, but in so desolate a state (the whole of the spice-trees having been destroyed) that this station, which had been the subject of so many treaties and negociations, was rendered wholly useless for eight years. In 1666 it was re-occupied by the Dutch. — (*Bruce, &c.*)

Pulo Roopat. — A considerable island in the Eastern seas, lying off the N.E. coast of Sumatra, from the northern coast of which it is separated by the narrow straits of Roopat. Its northern point is in lat. 2° 6′ N., lon. 101° 42′ E.

Puloway Isle. — A small island about twenty miles in circumference, situated off the north-west coast of Sumatra; lat. 5° 53′ N., lon. 95° 45′ E. This island is about five leagues distant from the mouth of the Acheen river, and was once volcanic, sulphur being found on it.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Pulwul.—A town in the province of Delhi, mentioned by Abul Fazel as marking the boundary where the Delhi province ceases and that of Agra commences: lat. 28° 12′ N., lon. 77° 12′ E., thirty-three miles south from the city of Delhi. In 1820 the pergunnah of Pulwul devolved to the British government by the death of the jaghiredar, the Nabob Morteza Khan, upon whose surviving family a pension of 2,000 rupees per month was settled.

Punchaits.—See Baroda.

Punchumnugur.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the north bank of the Sonar river, twenty-five miles west from Huttah; lat. 24° 4′ N., lon. 79° 9′ E.

Pundanlah.—A town in the province of Malwa, three miles distant from Mohunpoor. In 1820 it contained about 300 houses, and belonged to Sindia.

Pundercourah.—A town in the province of Berar, eighty-seven miles S.W. from Nagpoor; lat. 20° 7′ N., lon. 78° 38′ E.

Punderpoor *(Punyadkarapura)*.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the left bank of the Beema river, 110 miles S.E. from Poona; lat. 17° 42′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. Although not very large, this place is regularly and well built. The streets are broad, well-paved, and adorned with handsome houses, it being the custom formerly for all the principal members of the Maharatta federation to have dwellings here. The ex-Peshwa's house is handsome, but Tuckojee Holkar's is still more elegant. Nana Furnavese, Rastia, Pursuram Bhow, and others, had houses here. Sindia has not any place of residence, but his mother had several. The market is extensive and amply supplied not only with grain, cloth, and the other productions of the country, but also with a variety of English articles, there being a whole street of boras' (Mahomedan pedlars) shops, in which

the native merchants of Bombay and Poona are concerned. In 1820 Mr. Elphinstone estimated the population of Punderpoor at 25,000 persons.

The country to the south is well wooded and watered, and near the town the land is good, but so holy that the Brahmins assert no grain will germinate, their only produce being a consecrated shrub. The temple here is dedicated to a subordinate incarnation of Vishnu, named Wittoba, which is said to have fallen from the heavens at no very remote period. He is sculptured in stone, about the size of a man, and stands with his feet parallel to each other.

In more recent times Punderpoor has gained additional celebrity, as having been the scene where the assassination of Gungadhur Shastry (the Guicowar's ambassador), by the hired bravoes of the Peshwa and his minister Trimbuckjee, was perpetrated. This event, the direful spring of many woes to Bajerow, took place on the 14th of July 1815. The shastry above named was a Brahmin of the very highest caste, of great reputation for sanctity, and was then accredited as a foreign ambassador at the Peshwa's court under the special guarantee of the British government. The mode in which this murder was effected during the solemnities of religion, in a holy city where myriads of pilgrims where collected, and in the very precincts of the sacred temple, struck the superstitious minds of the Hindoos with singular horror, for bad as the Maharattas are, they have always detested assassins. With respect to the immediate agent, Trimbuckjee, he declared he was so busy sweeping the temple that he knew nothing about it, but the perpetrators were seen both to issue from the temple and to return to it while he was there.

During the war that ensued, the consequences resulting from this most atrocious act were extremely beneficial to the British nation, which stood forth the avengers of a Brahmin ambassador, murdered while performing the duties of his religion. This conciliated the popular favour, even within the Peshwa's own dominions, and the impression lasted long after the event that first gave rise to it. Two years afterwards, when a rupture occurred with all the Maharatta powers, the Peshwa's cause sustained vast detriment from its being traced to the foul murder of this Brahmin, and the indifference shewn at last to the fall of the dynasty, originated greatly from its being considered a judgment on Bajerow for his participation in the crime, while the murder of Narrain Row by his father (Ragobah) was still unexpiated.—(*Moore, Prinsep, Elphinstone, &c.*)

PUNDUAH.—A station in the province of Bengal, district of Silhet, which in 1827 was surveyed for the purpose of ascertaining its fitness for being selected for the site of a convalescent establishment. The hills here are said to attain an elevation of 5,000 feet above the level of the plains, and besides the temperature of the climate, enjoy the benefit of an extensive table-land covered with the finest fruits. European fruits and flowers, such as the raspberry, strawberry, apple, and violet, grow wild, and the erection of bungalows, for the benefit of invalids in this corner of India, it being only twenty-four hours' journey from the capital of Silhet, has been contemplated.

About nine miles distant north-east from Punduah, among the lower ranges of the Cosseah or Khasiya mountains, and about 600 feet above the adjacent plain, is the remarkable cavern of Booboosa. These hills are composed of sandstone, but their bases are strewed with fragments of other rocks, chiefly granite and limestone, of which last substance the hill penetrated by the cavern is composed. The walls and sides of the interior are adorned with stalactites, crystals, and petrifactions, all of limestone origin. The breadth and height vary at different parts, from ten to eighty feet, and one branch has been explored as far as

a mile from its mouth, beyond which no one has penetrated; but it is not supposed to end here, a current of air from the opposite side being felt; indicating that the whole mountain is perforated from one side to the other. The inside of the cavern is also much cut up by various openings and fissures at different altitudes, apparently leading to other branches and caverns.—(*Captain Fisher, &c.*)

PUNGAH.—A recent settlement on the west coast of the Malay peninsula, formed in 1810 by fugitives from Junk Ceylon, when invaded by the Burmese. It is situated up the river Pungah nearly opposite the northernmost point of Pulo Panjang, lat. 8° 5′ N.

There is a bar at the mouth of the river, so that it is not accessible to vessels that draw more than one and a half fathoms. From the source of the Pungah, the distance overland to the river Bandon (also of about one and a half fathoms depth), which falls into the gulf of Siam, is only two days' journey. The chief is styled Pia Salang, or governor of Junk Ceylon. In 1824 the population was estimated at 4,000 Malays and Siamese, 1,000 Chinese, 250 Christians, and a few Chuliah descendants of Malabars. Tin is the grand export; the other articles are biche-de-mar, tortoise-shell, ivory, birds'-nests, and rice, exported to Penang in prows and small junks built here of excellent timber.

Near Pungah there is said to be a circular valley, to which there is only one entrance under a high rock. High-water closes this passage, and at low-water the rapidity of the current, with the rocks and shelves in its channel, render it impracticable, the only time to enter being about half tide. In 1780, 500 natives were reported to have sought refuge in this secluded valley from the tyranny of the Siamese. From Pungah to the Trang river, a distance of seventeen leagues, there are a number of islands but no inhabitants, except the Orang Laut (men of the sea), who well in boats. — (*Anderson, Light, &c.*)

PUNGANOOR (*Punganur*).—A fortified town with a small district attached, two-thirds of which were acquired by the British government in 1799; lat. 13° 21′ N., lon. 78° 3′ E., forty-seven miles N.W. from Vellore.

The pollam of Punganoor is divided into eight summuts, which contain sixty-nine mauzas or large villages, and 675 muzrahs or dependent hamlets. This estate had been ten years under the management of the collector; but in 1816 it was resolved by the Madras presidency that the sum which had been collected during the above period should constitute the basis of a permanent assessment. The gross collection of ten years amounted to 3,34,873 pagodas; the net land revenue, after deducting charges, to 2,11,876 pagodas. This pollam had been assumed to ascertain its value, not in consequence of any misconduct on the part of the poligar; the value had been ascertained, the restoration of it therefore to his entire control became a measure of strict justice. Prior, however, to the carrying of this transfer into execution, the villages were rented to their respective inhabitants for ten years, so that for this length of time the poligar would be precluded from exacting more than the sums expressed in their leases. The waste lands were comprehended in these leases, and during their existence made over to the inhabitants who rented the villages.

In all the districts throughout the Balaghaut Ceded Territories, which are distinguished as dry-grain districts, the whole extent of land in each village not cultivated and not occupied by hills, dense jungles, or other obstructions, may be considered as waste capable of being reclaimed, and in such cases the waste must often greatly surpass the quantity of land under cultivation during any specific year. But it appears chimerical under the acknowledged poverty of the cultivators, and their

destitution of capital, to calculate on any material addition to the land revenue from high, unirrigated, and very extensive wastes, which are certainly to be found in every district south of the Krishna. If in the course of years the increase of capital and population call for extended cultivation, it may then be seasonably effected, and the present assessment on the lands under tillage be rendered less burthensome. In all dry-grain districts it is the practice of the cultivators to change their lands annually or periodically, and to occupy fallow or waste, in order that the land which has been impoverished may recover its fertility by remaining at rest. The custom of the native governments (too long followed by the British) was to endeavour to create an increase of revenue by a forced cultivation, so that while much land was under tillage none was well cultivated.

In India waste land is intrinsically of no value, except for pasturage in favourable climates and situations, where, indeed, it is possible to turn it to some account. Near a populous town it comes into demand also for building purposes, or for the appropriation of an overflowing commercial capital; but in the provincial parts there exists little or no surplus stock or capital, which is the grand deficit. In the course of the British revenue transactions it has been found that when individuals propose to occupy wastes it is always for the sake of the profit expected to be realized during the first five or ten years, especially when it is proposed to clear jungle ground; and this apparent improvement is generally effected by abstracting stock and labour from land where it might have been more profitably applied. It is notorious also that where the government is supportable, the peasantry seldom migrate for the sake of occupying waste, otherwise the vicinity of Calcutta would not present the greatest extent of jungly wilderness (the Sunderbunds) to be found in Hindostan. When cultivators do migrate from one district to another it commonly proceeds either from their being unable to pay their rent (being called on for old balances), or because that tract of country where they resided had suffered either from sickness or from a long drought. The labouring agricultural classes will endure much distress before they migrate, and few can afford to abandon their old lands to cultivate waste (unless it be woodland newly cleared, and the clearing is expensive), which is generally unproductive for the first year or two, and is acknowledged to be in every country less productive than land under the usual course of crops.

If application for lands came from emigrants from provinces beyond the British jurisdiction, or from particular persons not before cultivators, the settling of such persons on waste land would be an accession of so much stock to the district; but an emigration from one British province to another would not increase the aggregate revenue, although in their new domicile they do settle on and cultivate waste lands. In fact, if an accurate balance could be struck, it is probable that the gain to the revenue from the occupation of land actually waste throughout the south of India would be found to be very inconsiderable. Had a permanent settlement of the ceded and conquered districts in Upper Hindostan taken place immediately after their acquisition, a proprietor possessed of much jungle-land capable of being cultivated might have ruined his neighbour by attracting all his ryots by offering them fertile land at a low rent.—(*Madras Revenue Board, C. R. Ross, &c.*)

Punkleмath.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, situated on the east side of the Alacananda, 4,703 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 30° 26′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E.

Punwari.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twelve miles N. by W. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 28′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E.

Puprail.—A small town in the

province of Malwa, division of Kilcheepoor, which in 1820 contained about 2,000 inhabitants; lat. 24° 12′ N., lon. 76° 40′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

PURANTEIJ.—A pergunnah thus named in the province of Gujerat, part of which formerly belonged to the raja of Eder. In A.D. 1820 it contained about 6,000 inhabitants, one-third Mahomedans and two-thirds Hindoos; the land revenue 50,096 rupees.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PURKASSA.—A town in the province of Candeish, division of Nunderbar, situated on an elevated bank of the Tuptee, eighty-four miles E.N.E. from Surat; lat. 21° 29′ N., lon. 74° 22′ E. This was formerly a large town, but in 1816 was almost in ruins, the number of houses being only 600, and very few of them occupied. The inhabitants were mostly Brahmins, and the remains of many pagodas attest their former importance.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

PURKHYAL.—A peak of a ridge of mountains in Northern Hindostan, which separates the Spiti from the Sutulje river; lat. 31° 53′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E., elevation above the level of the sea, 22,700 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

PURNEAH (*Purinya*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated principally in the north-eastern quarter, but comprehending also a portion of the Mogul province of Bahar. On the north it is bounded by the Morung hills and woods; on the south by Boglipoor and Rajeshahy; to the east it has Dinagepoor; and to the west Boglipoor and Tirhoot. Its greatest length is 155 miles, its greatest breadth ninety-eight, and its total superficial contents about 6,340 square miles.

The form of this district is tolerably compact, but at the south-east corner it stretches out to a narrow wing, where it is intermixed with Rajeshahy and Boglipoor. Previous to the late war the whole northern frontier also, which confined on the Nepaulese territories, was ill-defined, and occasioned many disputes between the two powers. In the northern corner of the district towards the Mahananda there are a few small hillocks of earth; and at Manihari, near the banks of the Ganges, there is a conical peak about 100 feet high, but, generally speaking, Purneah may be described as a flat country, gradually sinking as it approaches the Ganges. The inundated land occupies nearly one-half of the whole, and where the soil is good is tolerably well cultivated.

The only rock that has been discovered in the country is a small detached hill at Manihari, where a calcareous mass reaches the surface and is of considerable dimensions. It appears to be an aggregate rock composed of many small pebbles or nodules united by a common cement. In many places the stone has been reduced to a white substance like chalk, usually disposed in large beds, with galleries as it were formed in the stone four or five feet wide, and as many high, perforating the mass in very irregular directions. A man rents the privilege of digging for this substance, which is afterwards made up into little balls, and sold all over the country to women employed in spinning cotton, who rub it on their fingers. It contains not the slightest trace of vegetable matter or of animal exuviæ. The nearest rock to it, on the opposite side of the Ganges, is about seven miles distant. On the northern side there is no other rock within the British territories.

There are no mines or mineral springs. Common springs are numerous, but among the natives are not in request, most of them rising in bogs or marshes, curdled with frogs and snakes'-spawn, and stinking aquatic plants. By digging wells water is usually found at no great depth. In many parts, especially in old mango groves, the earth would seem strongly impregnated with muriate of soda, as the cattle are fond of licking these soils, and a culinary salt is extracted by filtration and boiling.

Near Gondara there is a saline earth used by washermen in bleaching of linen, the chief ingredient of which is, probably, carbonate of soda.

Since Major Rennell composed his Bengal atlas great changes have taken place in the rivers of Purneah, so that the maps are little applicable to their present state. Their nomenclature also among the natives is, to the last degree, perplexed and inaccurate, scarcely two persons giving the same name to a river or to the mart on its banks. The names of the principal are the Cosi, the Mahananda, the Conki or Kankayi, the Puurabhoba, and the Ichamutty. The lakes and morasses formed by the old channels of rivers which have lost all connexion with the main stream are numerous but shallow. The most remarkable marshes form a long chain, passing with some interruptions from Gondwara to Malda, and seem to be a congeries of broken narrow channels, winding among low lands, which probably have at one period been the channel of a great river. Near the largest streams the soil of the inundated lands undergoes great changes: the same field is one year overwhelmed with sand, and the next covered with a rich and fertile mud; but on the whole the lands watered by the Mahananda and its branches are by far the richest, while those watered by the Cosi, especially towards the north and east, are rather poor and sandy. The lands exempted from inundation are partly clay, partly free-soil, and partly sandy. In favourable seasons the high lands of a mixed good soil are very productive of all kinds of grain, especially cruciform plants resembling mustard, which are reared for oil, and are the staple commodity of the district.

In every part of Purneah the cold of winter is greater than in Rungpoor or Dinagepoor, and when strong westerly winds blow during that season for two or three successive days, hoar-frost is found in the mornings, which occasionally is so extreme as to injure some crops, especially the pulse. In spring the hot winds from the west are usually of longer duration than in Dinagepoor; but towards the Morung frontier they are little known. The prevailing winds are north in the winter, and south in the rainy season. From March to June the winds incline to the west, and from August to December easterly winds predominate. The violent squalls of the spring come as often from the east and north-east as they do from the north-west; the rainy season is of shorter duration than further east, and earthquakes, but not violent ones, are common.

Purneah having many advantages of soil and climate, has always been considered one of the most productive in the province. Rice and other grains are raised in large quantities; but plants reared for oil, although greatly inferior in aggregate value, are the great objects of commerce, and the source from whence the rents are mostly paid. The European potatoe was naturalized in 1810. Of plants used for dyeing, indigo is the most important. Cattle here are an important article of stock, and it is from hence Bengal is supplied with a great proportion of the carriage bullocks; but the fine cattle that drag the artillery are not bred in this district, although usually termed Purneah bullocks, being from further west. The Company's cattle are allowed a certain quantity of grain per day, which they do not always receive; but when kept up and fed for slaughter, equal the best English beef. The herds of cattle and buffaloes are here so numerous that all the resources of the country would be unequal to their support, were it not for the adjacent wilds of the Morung. The natives of Purneah are almost entirely supplied with butter by the buffaloe: and a considerable quantity of ghee, or buffaloe's butter clarified, is annually exported. The northern part, bordering on the Morung, is thinly inhabited, and covered with immense woods of saul and other timber, which during the rains are floated down the rivers to the building yards at Calcut-

ta. Cotton wool is imported from the west, betel and coco-nuts from the south. The quantity of English broadcloth used is a mere trifle. The district is, on the whole, well provided with water carriage; and the natives possess a great variety of boats, adapted to different purposes. Within the whole district there are reckoned to be 482 market-places, but the following are the principal towns: Purneah, 6,000 houses; Nantpoor, 1,400; Kusbah, 1,400; Dhamdaha, 1,300; and Matauli, 1,000 houses.

In this district wild elephants have been very destructive, ruining fields and villages every year, to the great disgrace of the police. In 1810 a rhinoceros made his appearance in the marshy woods of the south; but fortunately he thrust himself on the premises of an indigo planter, and was shot. The jackal and Indian fox are both common. The former is asserted to steal both money and cloth; but for this calumny against the quadruped the natives probably have good reasons, as it serves to account for the disappearance of many things. Except about the ruins of Gour tigers and leopards are not common. By both Mahomedans and Hindoos these animals are supposed to be the property of the Peers, or old Mussulman saints, so that the natives do not sympathize with Europeans in the sport of tiger-hunting. It is probable, also, that where a country is overgrown with wood or long grass, a few tigers are useful in keeping down the number of wild hogs and deer, which are infinitely more destructive to the farmer; and whenever the country is cleared they disappear. Many of the tigers' heads, for which a reward of ten rupees each is paid by the collector, are imported from the Morung and the Nepaulese territories.

Every where to the north of Purneah town paroquets are in immense numbers, and consume a great deal of grain; peacocks in the southern sections are also a great nuisance. The bagiri of the natives is what the English in Bengal call an ortolan; and in the spring, after it has been fattened on the winter crops, is very palatable. The bagiri is a bird of passage, and is only found in large flocks during the fair weather, and vanishes when the rains commence. The peacocks, cranes, paroquets, and ortolans make an open attack on the crop during the day, and during the night the farmer is harassed watching his fields against the deer and wild elephants. The galinule, or water-hen, creeps unseen along the marshes, and does more harm than any of the other birds. The swarms of water-fowl to be seen during the cold season are altogether astonishing. This district also abounds in snipes, golden plover, and the florekin, or lesser bustard, all excellent eating, but held in great contempt by the natives. By them the small white heron (vak), of which there is a great variety and number, and the shags and water-crows are much more esteemed, and are prized on account of their having a fishy taste.

In 1789 Mr. Suetonius Grant Heatly, then collector of Purneah, computed the number of villages within the limits of the district at 5,800, from which he inferred a population of 1,200,000 persons. In 1801 Mr. W. E. Rees reported the number of villages to be 7,056, and the estimated total population 1,450,000 persons. Dr. Francis Buchanan was of opinion that during the forty years prior to A D. 1810, the population of Purneah had nearly doubled, and his computation, the result of a much more laborious investigation, exhibits a total population of 2,904,380 persons, in the proportion of forty-three Mahomedans to fifty-seven Hindoos. Of these last more than half consider themselves as still belonging to foreign nations, either from the west or south, although few have any tradition concerning the era of their migration; and others have not any knowledge of the country from whence they suppose their ancestors to have come. Comprehended in the above population are various classes of slaves, or

which one class costs from £1. 15s. to £2. 5s.; in another a boy costs from £1. 8s. to £2. 5s.; and a girl of eight years from 11s. to £1. 15s. They are allowed to marry, and their children become slaves; but the family are seldom sold separately. One class of slaves are by far the most comfortable description of labouring people, and are seldom sold by their owners, although they possess the power. In 1810 the houses of bad fame were 470. At Jellalghur, ten miles from the town of Purneah, there is a brick fort, built by the nabob Syef Khan, of about 300 feet square, having circular bastions at each angle and a parapet wall pierced with loop-holes for musketry, but the most remarkable antiquity is a line of fortification extending through the north-west part of the district, for about twenty miles, and named [illegible].

In Purneah the rent of the farms is very much affected by the rank of the tenants. All the high ranked pure tribes, such as Brahmins, Rajpoots, Kayasthas, [illegible], Patans, and Moguls, have a right to occupy whatever land they require for their gardens and houses free of rent, and the same indulgence is granted to men of both religions who pretend that they are dedicated to worship; such as Baraggees, Sanyassies, Vishnuvies, and Fakeers. Although the Mahomedans are in proportion fewer than in Dinagepoor, they have more influence, much more of the land being in their possession, the manners of the capital town are entirely Mahomedan, and the faith apparently gaining ground. Except artists, all the other Mahomedans call themselves Sheiks, as deriving their origin from Arabia, but a great majority are not to be distinguished from the neighbouring Hindoo peasantry. In 1810 there were twelve families of native Christians, who are called Portuguese, and who are chiefly employed as writers. A Protestant missionary had resided in the south east corner of this district, but no intelligence had been received regarding the number of his converts.

In this district it is remarkable that science is almost confined to two of its corners; the old territory called Gour, and a small portion situated to the west of the Cosi. Towards the west metaphysics are much studied, and are supposed to have been first disclosed by Gautama at Chitraban, on the banks of the Ganges, somewhere near to Buxar. The Sri Bhagvat is much studied by the sect of Vishnu; the agam or doctrine of the Tantras is also taught by several learned men in the north and east of the district.

In Purneah there is a great diversity of eras; the eastern parts following that of Camroop; but in the western portion, which formed part of the ancient kingdom of Mithila, the year is lunar, and commences on the first day of the full moon in Assar. They have also an era named after Lakshman, king of Gour, of which the 70th year corresponds with 1810. In civil affairs the solar year is used, and the greater proportion of the revenue is collected according to the era of Bengal; but in the section that belonged to soubah Bahar the instalments are regulated by the fussily year, instituted for the purpose by the sovereigns of Delhi. None of the pandits have sufficient knowledge to construct an almanac, nor do any of them possess instruments for celestial observations. In learning to write, the Bengalese commence with making letters in the sand, after which they write on palmira leaves with ink made of charcoal, which rubs out; subsequently with ink made of lamp black, on plantain leaves, and conclude with the same ink on paper.

In this district the principal object of all native expenditure being to maintain as many dependents as possible, the relative expenses of different families bear a much closer proportion to their respective number of persons each contains than a similar predicament in Europe would indicate. The main contingent expenses are the building of new houses, marriages, funerals, pilgrimages, purifi-

cations, and other incidental ceremonies, one of which occurs almost annually. Such contingencies fall heaviest on the Hindoos, especially those of high rank, and these adverting to the probability of having to provide for them, regulate their expenditure with the utmost parsimony. On the contrary, the Mahomedans of rank are an expensive shewy people, and still lead the fashions at the capital of the district, whereas the Hindoos generally live retiredly, and are in private uncommonly slovenly.

The principal traders, besides the Company's servants, are the Goldar merchants, who keep stores, the Gosain or Sanyassi merchants, who are very numerous, and export almost the whole of the silk cloth, and also deal largely in money, jewels, grain, cotton, and other articles. Some people make a subsistence by buying cattle for exportation; and notwithstanding its opprobrious nature, many of these are Brahmins. There are many bankers, especially at the capital, where the Shroffs exchange gold for silver, and the Fotdars silver and cowries. These people, however, are daily losing ground, on account of the plenty of silver and the introduction of bank notes. In a country exceedingly poor a gold coinage is highly distressing to the lower classes, even a rupee in Bengal is a large sum, for, being a ploughman's wages for two months, it may be considered of as much importance in the circulation of the country as three or four pounds in England. In the present circulation of the country quarter rupees are the largest pieces required for provincial circulation. In 1810 the gold in this district had fortunately disappeared.

A man of rank here marrying a low girl pays little of the marriage expense; but many rich men of low cast ruin themselves in procuring women of high rank for their children. A man of high rank is often hired when toothless, and even when in a dying state, to marry a low child, which is afterwards left a widow, incapable of marriage, in order to raise her father's family, and render her brothers more easily marriageable. In common practice many Brahmins marry more wives than one; but these are mostly men of high rank, who are hired to marry low-born women, of whom their fathers take charge; few, however, keep two wives in one house. In Mithila all marriages are made in the month of Ashar, while in Bengal, Phalgun is the usual time selected for performing the ceremony. Except those of Brahmins, Rajpoots, Vaisyas, Bhants, Kayasthas, and some of the Banyans, all widows of pure Hindoos can live with men as samodhs or concubines, and among all tribes of Mithila that admit of concubines, when an elder brother dies, his younger takes his widow as concubine. Children born of women kept privately, are called Krishna Packhsha, or children of the wane of the moon, darkness being considered favourable to intrigue.

Among the Rajpoots are a few of the Surya sect, who worship the sun, many of whom, for three months of the year, abstain from eating while the sun is above the horizon, which is considered as a compliment to that luminary; and some who are extremely devout, for the same reason, during that quarter of the year do not sit down all Sunday.

The higher ranks of this district certainly have an aversion to Europeans, whom they never wish to see, but in many cases this probably originates from the dread they feel of having their oppressive conduct to their tenantry and poor neighbours exposed. They, however, plead for their excuse the difference of manners, such as the eating of beef and pork, and the whole conduct of European women, which they consider as totally destitute of decency, which it certainly is, according to their notions of female propriety.

The worship of Satya Narain among the Hindoos, and of Satya Peer among the Mahomedans, is very prevalent. Although these words imply the "true God," the worship weans neither sect from its absur-

dities, each continuing to follow its old system of mummery; indeed this object of devotion is chosen only in cases of little importance, because this deity is supposed to be very good natured, and to concede trifles with much alacrity.

It is remarkable that in this district a large proportion of the Hindoos allege themselves to be of foreign extraction, especially in Mithila and Gour. It is also remarkable that there is scarcely a great native tribe of those who cultivate the land, and who in India usually constitute three-fourths of the population. These tribes of cultivators, such as the Cooch of Camroop, and the different kinds of Wocul of Karnata, may, in general, be considered as the original inhabitants of the country; but in the two above-mentioned portions of this district, the greater part of the cultivators appear to have been eradicated. In the many parts of Bengal the greater part of the cultivators would seem to have embraced the Mahomedan faith, but in the western tracts of Purneah this has not happened, yet even there a small proportion of the cultivators consist of any tribe that can be considered as aboriginal.

During the Mogul domination this was a frontier military province, under the rule of a foujdar, subordinate to the soubahdar or viceroy; but exercising a high jurisdiction, both civil and military. Syef Khan is the most famous of these provincial rulers, and governed until his death in the Bengal year 1159, under the successive viceroyalties of Jaffier, Shuja, and Aliverdi Khan. In 1139 Bengal style, he extended the limits of the province beyond the Cosa, and in A.D. 1738, added a considerable portion of productive territory on the side of the Morung. He was succeeded by Soulet Jung, on whose death the foujdary was usurped by Shouket Jung, otherwise named Khadim Ali Khan, but this rebellion was easily quashed, and terminated in the death of the pretender. When Lord Clive acquired the Dewanny, in 1785, the foujdary of Purneah was occupied by Raja Suckit Ray, the sixteenth foujdar; the seventeenth was Razi ud Deen, the eighteenth Mahomed Ali Khan, who was succeeded by the English magistrate Mr. Ducarel.

Before and since the acquisition of this territory, the most prevalent crime within its limits has been that of gang robbery, frequently attended with murder; but in 1814, the superintendent of police was decidedly of opinion that these atrocities had experienced a great reduction. Much good has resulted from establishing a chain of police stations along the frontier, the officers of which were instructed to pursue offenders into the adjacent province of Morung, belonging to the Gorkhas of Nepaul. In 1815 the continued unhealthiness of the towns of Purneah and Dinagepoor left little doubt that the necessity of removing the civil authorities to more healthy stations would ultimately be considered unavoidable: and it appeared desirable that the measure should be effected before the construction of new gaols, or the repairs of the public buildings commenced. All expenditure for these objects was in consequence suspended, and the government endeavoured to obtain the most accurate information of the causes of the insalubrity that prevailed to so dreadful an extent in these towns, with the view of forming a final decision on this important question. Prior to the above date the acting magistrate had recommended the removal of the head station to Jelalghur, which he described as elevated, open, and at a distance from jungle, while the walls of the old fortress might be turned to account in the construction of a safe and commodious gaol.—(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Colebrook, Thornhill, Rees, &c.*)

PURNEAH.—A town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district; lat. 25° 45′ N., lon. 88° 23′ E., 125 miles N.W. by N. from Moorshedabad. This town, which oc-

cupies a space of nine square miles, equal to more than the half of London, contains only 40,000 inhabitants scattered over this great extent, and might rather be described as an assemblage of villages than a single town. Within these limits there were, in 1810, one hundred dwelling houses, and seventy shops, built entirely or in part of brick, and 200 that were roofed with tiles, besides which there were ten private places of worship for Mahomedans, and five for Hindoos. As frequently happens in India, this station had so deteriorated for many years in salubrity, without any perceptible cause for the alteration, that in 1815 the Bengal government considered a removal of the civil authorities to some other station unavoidable.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

PURRUAH (*or Peruya*).—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, twelve miles north from the ruins of Gour; lat. 25° 28′ N., lon. 88° 14′ E. In A.D. 1353 this was a royal residence, the capital of Ilyas, the second independent sovereign of Bengal, at which time it was besieged and taken by the emperor Feroze. During the reign of Raja Cansa, the Hindoo monarch of Bengal, who died in 1392, the city of Purruah was much extended, and the Brahminical religion flourished. His son, who became a convert to the Mahomedan faith, removed the seat of government back to Gour again. Some of the ruins of this city still remain, particularly the Adeena mosque, and the pavement of a very long street; the first, the most remarkable Mahomedan monument to be found in the lower provinces.

In all this vicinity there are very extensive ruins of mosques and other religious buildings, Purruah having long been the focus of the Mahomedan faith in this quarter of India. By far the most conspicuous places of worship are the monuments of Muckdoom, Shah Jelal, and Kotub Shah, who were the two most distinguished religious persons during the early part of the kingly government in Bengal. Numerous pilgrims repair to these monuments at all seasons of the year, and from all parts of the province. Both places have endowments which are expended in keeping the buildings in repair, in the support of mendicant vagrants, and of a numerous establishment. These illustrious personages are said by the inhabitants to have been kings of the place, as it was only according to their pleasure that the temporal kings could reign. Peruya is said to be a corrupted vulgar name, the proper appellation of the city being said to be Panduya or Panduviya, from Pandu the father of Judhester, who, according to legend, was sovereign of India 5,000 years ago.

On the establishment of the Mahomedan sovereignty in Bengal, independent of that of Delhi, the seat of government was transferred from Gour to Purruah, on which event Gour appears to have been plundered of every monument of former grandeur that could be removed, on which account, on the buildings that still remain, there are very few traces of Hindoo sculpture. Purruah in its turn was deserted, and the seat of government seems to have been replaced at Gour by Nuzzer Khan, who had a long reign of twenty-seven years. Most of the present ruins, however, are attributed to Hossein Shah, the most powerful of the monarchs of Bengal. — (*F. Buchanan, Stewart, Rennell, Fullarton, &c.*)

PURRUAH (*Peruya*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Burdwan, thirty-one miles E.S.E. from the town of Burdwan, and thirty-nine N. by E. from Calcutta. Here, among other Mussulman antiquities, is a mosque built of dark stone, the roof of which is supported by a treble range of pointed arches, giving the interior the appearance of a gothic aisle. Near the mosque is a lofty round tower, which commands a fine view of the country, but for which, no other obvious use can be assigned.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Pursoo (*or Pherm*).—A village in the province of Agra, principality of Bhurtpoor, twenty-two miles S W. from the city of Bhurtpoor; lat. 27° 3′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E. This place stands on the side of a small hill of sandstone, below which winds, what in the rainy season is a considerable stream, but at other times a dry expanse of sand. It contains a fortified house belonging to the Bhurtpoor raja. The neighbourhood produces plentiful crops of good wheat, yet the soil is mere sand, but under the hot sun of Hindostan even sand becomes fertile by irrigation, and the inhabitants are so sensible of the importance of water, that they are seen raising it from the wells, and conveying it in small conduits to the fields, even after rain has quite recently fallen.

Purtyal (*or Gunny Purtyal*).—A small town situated within the British possessions in the province of Orissa, but belonging to the Nizam, near the river Krishna, on the high road from Masulipatam to Hyderabad, and eight miles S.W. from Condapilly. Diamond mines were formerly worked here, and many small gems of inferior water are still procurable; but on all above fifteen carats, the Nizam claims seventy-five per cent.

Putellam.—A large and commercial village in the island of Ceylon, seventy-four miles north from Colombo, lat. 7° 57′ N., lon. 79° 42′ E. The surrounding country being flat and low, is periodically inundated by the sea to a considerable distance inland; which local advantage facilitating the formation of salt ponds, and the heat of the sun their evaporation, much salt is here manufactured by that lazy process.

Puttaree.—A town and square fort in the province of Malwa, division of Gunge Bassouda, fifteen miles from Ratghur. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia.

Putteprandoo.—A considerable village in the Northern Circars, district of Guntoor, about eleven miles S.W. from the town of Guntoor. There are two small pagodas here with pyramidical tops in rather an antique style of architecture; and at each extremity of the village there is a fine reservoir.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Puttunwara.—A district in the province of Gujerat, of which it occupies the north-west corner, and which has, as yet, been very imperfectly explored; its limits are, consequently, especially to the north, very imperfectly explored. To the west it is bounded by the Runn. The principal streams are the Banas and Sereswati.

Fifty years ago the district immediately attached to the town of Puttun belonged to Kumaul ud Deen, the father of the present nabob of Rahdunpoor; but he was then compelled by Damajee Guicowar to abandon all pretensions to Puttun and its nine independent pergunnahs. The country is still but thinly peopled, and much exposed to the ravages of predatory tribes, but it contains Nehrwalla, or Puttun, the ancient metropolis of Gujerat; the seat of government having been subsequently transferred by the Mahomedan sultans to Ahmedabad. The appellation Nehrwalla is written Anhulvada, and signifies the field of Anhul; in modern times it is known to the natives by the name of Puttun or the city. This town is situated on the south side of the Sereswati river, which here in the dry season rolls a feeble stream, about sixty-five miles N. by E from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 48′ N., lon. 72° 2′ E. —(*Macmurdo, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

Puttansomnauth (*Patana soma natha*).—A town near the southern extremity of the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-nine miles N.W. from Diuhead, lat. 20° 53′ N., lon. 70° 35′ E. In 1808 it belonged to Ahmed Khan, the Mahomedan nabob of Junaghur. By Abul Fazel, in A.D. 1582, it is described as follows: "This is a large town on the sea-shore with a stone fort in a plain. The city is a

place of great religious resort." When that author composed the Ayeen Acberry, the surrounding country was named Soreth, although at present more generally known by that of Cattywar, and is celebrated in the sacred books of the Hindoos as containing these inestimable blessings; 1st. the river Goomty; 2d. beautiful women; 3d. good horses; 4th. Somnauth; 5th. Dwaraca. The modern town stands at the junction of three rivers, the Hurna, the Kapula, and the Sereswati. It is mentioned by Marco Polo about A.D. 1295, and by Sidi Ali in 1554.

Somnauth (Soma natha, the lord of the moon) is one of the twelve images of Siva, which are said to have descended from heaven to earth, and the great fame and riches of its temple attracted the cupidity, while it stimulated the bigotry of Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni. According to Mahomedan authors the holy image was destroyed; but this fact is denied by the Hindoos, who assert, that the god retired into the ocean. The temple, although on this occasion despoiled of its enormous treasures, soon recovered wealth sufficient to make it an object of attack to Mahomedan potentates. Sultan Mahmood Begra, who obtained possession of the Gujerat throne in 877 of the Hijera, marched against Somnauth, razed the temple to the ground, and built a mosque on the spot where it stood. Since that period the territory of Soreth has remained under a Mahomedan government, but the persevering piety of the Hindoos has overcome the religious phrenzy of their rulers. The mosque has gone to ruins, and Ahila Bhye, the widow of a prince of the Holcar family, has erected a new temple on the exact site of that which had been demolished. A symbol of Siva has been placed therein, deemed peculiarly propitious to those that desire offspring, and Somnauth, although it has lost its splendour, retains its reputation, and is visited by pilgrims from every quarter, who pay a trifling duty to the Mussulman nabob, for permission to perform their devotions at this favorite shrine.

Not only the spot on which Somnauth stands, but also its vicinity, is celebrated in the tales of Hindoo mythology. On the adjacent plains, the renowned conflict of the Jadoos was fought, five thousand years ago, wherein sixty millions of combatants were engaged, and all slain except about a dozen. One mile from the temple, at a place called Bhalka, the Hindoo pilgrim is shewn a solitary peepul tree, on the banks of the river Sereswati, which he is assured grows on the exact spot where the deity Krishna received the mortal wound from an arrow that terminated his incarnation. In 1816, through the interposition of the Bombay presidency with the Junaghur state, arrangements were effected tending to secure a greater freedom of pilgrimage to Somnauth. It had long been an object of lively interest with the Guicowar state, and anxiously desired by all classes of Hindoos, to relieve this sacred and celebrated shrine from the insults of the Mahomedans, who not only preposterously obstructed their worship, but entered the recesses of their temples without the smallest respect for their prejudices.—(*Malcolm, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

PYCHE.—A town in the province of Malabar, fourteen miles N.E. from Tellicherry; lat. 11° 56′ N., lon. 75° 39 E.

Q.

QUEDAH (*Keddah*).—A principality in the peninsula of Malacca, situated on the west coast, between the fifth and eighth degrees of north latitude, and immediately opposite to Prince of Wales' island. Seen from the latter, the Quedah coast presents a considerable plain, covered with close wood, through which winds a river navigable for small craft to the base of the high mountains, from behind which, as viewed from George Town, the sun rises.

This territory extends along the coast about 150 miles, commencing from the river Traang, which is its northern boundary, and is from twenty to thirty-five miles in breadth, but the cultivated land no where exceeds twenty miles from the shore. From Traang to Purlis, the sea-coast is sheltered by many islands for a distance of twenty-four leagues, low, and covered with forest. The water is remarkably shallow, ships being obliged to anchor at a great distance from the shore. Along this tract eleven rivers empty themselves into the sea, but navigable for boats only. The mouth of the Quedah river is in lat. 6° 6′ N. At spring tides there is sufficient water to admit a vessel of 300 tons, over the mud flat at its mouth; but there are stakes nearly across, leaving only a small opening for junks and prows. Bunder Pakan Quulla, the first town in ascending, contains about 1,000 houses on both sides of the river, which further up diverges into many channels.

Prior to the Siamese invasion, Quedah was populous and divided into 128 mukims or parishes, for they must all contain at least one mosque, and forty-four persons versed in its ceremonials. The name of its metropolis formerly was Lindong Ambulan, which being translated signifies "shaded from the moon"; afterwards it received the name of Quedah (pronounced Keddah) which means, an enclosure for taking elephants. By the Siamese it is named Cherei. Until the disasters which it experienced in 1821, Quedah exported large quantities of rice to Penang; also cattle, fish, poultry, and fruit: latterly these have been reduced to one-tenth. Formerly a junk came annually from China and purchased biche-de-mar, bird's-nests, shark-fins, tin, rice, rattans, dammer, tortoise-shell, deer skins, sinews, bullock and buffaloe hides, and various other commodities.

In the Quedah forests are black and spotted elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, leopards, tiger-cats, wild cattle, an animal like the elk deer, guanos, porcupines, and many varieties of the ape and monkey tribes, with and without tails; the most remarkable bird is the Argus pheasant. Durable timber for house and ship building, bamboos, Malay fruits, such as the mangosteen, rambosteen, &c. abound, and the climate permits the cultivation of every tropical fruit, flower, and vegetable. Tin and gold are found in sufficient quantities to reward research. The first is brought from the interior by water to Quedah, where it is cast into slabs of from fifty to eighty pounds, and also into smaller pieces of fanciful shapes, such as cocks, hens, dogs, tea-kettles, &c. of various weights. The best Malay is spoke and written in this petty state, the inhabitants being particularly attentive to the purity of their language, and careful in excluding foreign and exotic words.

Quedah is inhabited by Malays of the Mahomedan religion, and governed by hereditary chiefs, who assume the title of sultan; but wherever the government of Siam is in vigour they pay homage to its king (the Poa of Dwarawuddi), by sending annually one flower of gold and another of silver. The first settlers are said to have come from Malacca, and the town of Quedah in 1614 was destroyed by the Portuguese. The grandfather of the reigning monarch in 1823, was Sultan Mahomed Jewa Shah, who was succeeded by his son Sultan Abdulla Shah, about A.D. 1778. This last-mentioned prince dying in 1798, was succeeded by his brother, Sultan Fleea ud Deen Shah, who ceded the province of Wellesley, while Sir George Leith was governor of Penang. Some time afterwards he transferred the throne to Tuanko Pangeran, his nephew, and eldest son to Sultan Abdalla abovementioned, who assumed the reins in 1804.

In 1786 an agreement was entered into with the king of Quedah for the cession of Prince of Wales' Island, and in 1792 a regular treaty of peace and amity, to continue as long as the

sun and moon give light, was concluded, by which the East India Company agreed to pay 6,000 dollars annually, which was afterwards raised to 10,000 dollars, in consideration of the territory ceded on the main land. In 1816 the Quedah sultan appealed for advice and assistance, being compelled by the Siamese to attack the raja of Perak, against his inclination and interests, and also to furnish enormous contributions of money and stores; the demands of Siam having always been arbitrary, and limited only by its power to inforce them. In November 1821 Quedah was invaded by a large fleet of Siamese prows from the river Traang, where the armament had been equipped, and subdued with little difficulty, the king seeking refuge at Penang.

The British territory on the Quedah coast, named Wellesley province, in 1824 contained 14,000 souls, and the produce of rice from the lands under cultivation was estimated at 48,000 bags. In 1826, the king of Quedah, who had been expelled from his dominions by the Siamese, still resided at Penang, where he was allowed 500 dollars monthly, but prohibited from levying troops or making hostile engagements; in fact, by the subsequent treaty with the Siamese, his cause appears to have been quite abandoned. Twelve thousand of his subjects had sought refuge in the British territories on the sea-coast, opposite to Prince of Wales' Island. In 1827 his family and relations, to the number of seventy persons, through the interference of Captain Burney, were released and forwarded to Penang.—(*Anderson, Public MS. Documents, Dalrymple, Capt. Glass, Johnson, Elmore, &c.*)

QUILON (*in Malabar*).—See COULAN.

QUINHONE (*or Chinchicu bay*).—An excellent harbour in Cochin China, were vessels are sheltered from every wind. The entrance is narrow, and the want of a sufficient depth of water obliges vessels of great burthen to delay entering until high water.

R.

RABNABAD ISLE (*Ravana abad*).—A low muddy island in the province of Bengal, district of Backergunge, formed by the sediment deposited by the Rabnabad river, one of the branches of the Ganges, and separated from the main land by a very narrow strait. At neap-tides it is scarcely above water, and at spring-tides it is nearly submerged. In length it may be estimated at fifteen miles, by five the average breadth.

RACHOUTY.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, twenty-seven miles south from Cuddapah; lat. 14° 9′ N., lon. 78° 52′ E.

RAEENGURH.—A fort in Northern Hindostan, situated on the banks of the Pabar river, which originally belonged to Bussaher; lat. 31° 12′ N., lon. 77° 46′ E.; fifty three miles N.N.E. from Nahan.

RAEEPOOR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, thirty-five miles E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 31′ N., lon. 77° E.

RAGOOGHUR.—A town and small square fort of masonry in the province of Malwa, fifteen miles distant from Tilloor. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Dewass, and contained about 4,000 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAGHOOGHUR.—A town within Sindia's dominions, in the province of Malwa, thirty-six miles N.W. from Seronge; lat. 24° 27′ N., lon. 77° 14′ E. It is the head of the large district of Kychcewara, which, including the town, yields a revenue of two lacks of rupees. The petty chief to whom it belonged had been leading a predatory and refractory life, but in 1820, through the mediation of the British government, the town and fort of Raghooghur, with an es-

tate of 55,000 rupees, were restored to him.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAHDUNPOOR.—A petty state in the north-western quarter of the Gujerat province, to which it is difficult to assign any intelligible limits. The Theraudri (a dependency) is bounded on the north by Neyer and Sachore; east by the Desawal district; south by the Chunswa pergunnah; and west by the Runn.

The principal chieftains within this space are the nabob of Rahdunpoor, the rana of Wow, the row of Choteelwara, and the waghelas of Theraud and Deodhur. The Coolies of Nuggur, Jampoor, and Bhahbeer, have some towns interspersed among these principalities. This territory was reduced to a state of complete desolation by the Joudpoor plundering troops, the great famine of 1869 fusly (A.D. 1813), and the never-ending ravages of the Khosas and Coolies. The tract lying on the Runn, from Sooeegaum to Gusra, ninety miles in length by about thirty in breadth, is possessed and peopled by two branches of the Chohan Rajpoots, the Nadolas, and Sonegiras, the leading features of whose characters are pride, falsehood, debauchery, and plundering habits; at the same time brave, liberal, and without the usual fastidiousness of the Indian character. If left to themselves they would exist in a state of continual warfare, their feuds, marriages, robberies, and debaucheries, seldom leaving any man without a demand for blood, or a similar claim on him from others, or more frequently both.

Their territory is level, arid and uncultivated, covered with low jungle, and their resources even in prosperous times of little importance. Including a portion of Palhanpoor, it fills up the space between the Runn on the west, and the mountains on the east, and extends nearly as far as Sachore, beyond which commence the Joudpoor dominions, whose raja also shares, along with the Ameers of Sinde, the habitable portions of the desert, between the river Looni (the Ban of Arrowsmith) and the Indus. In 1820 the total revenue of Rahdunpoor was estimated at 160,000 rupees, but its realization was so very uncertain a contingency, that it could contribute nothing towards the federal system of defence against the Khosas, Coolies, and other plunderers. At the above date the pergunnah of Rahdunpoor contained forty inhabited towns and villages: the pergunnahs of Summee and Mo[illegible]jpoor seventy-five inhabited and twelve desolate, besides which Rahdunpoor levied collections on Warye, Choorwagur, Tehrwara, Deodhur, Morewara, and other tributary towns. The towns of most importance are Rahdunpoor and Summee, and the territory is, on the whole, more fertile than that of the adjacent petty states. In 1821, in consequence of the increase of revenue (52,202 rupees) resulting to Rahdunpoor from the protective arrangements of the British government, the nabob's tribute was fixed at 17,000 rupees annually, for five years; but addition of revenue was not so much the object, as to induce the native chiefs on the north-west frontier of Gujerat to co-operate in its defence.—(*Elphinstone, Miles, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

RAHDUNPOOR.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated about 125 miles in a N.W. direction from Baroda; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 71° 31′ E. It stands in a wide, open plain, and is surrounded by an ancient brick wall, with towers at regular distances, but the whole is in a state of great decay. In 1820 it contained about 4,000 houses, and owing to its geographical position was a sort of commercial entrepôt for the trade of Marwar and Cutch. Its own staple commodities are ghee, wheat, and hides, the produce of its territory. No manufactures of any importance are carried on, except one of very course cotton cloth, for the Coolies, the inhabitants being mostly engaged in pastoral and agricultural

pursuits. The river Banass passes within three or four miles of Rahdunpoor; but except during the rains is never full. Rahdunpoor is mentioned by Sidi Ali in A.D. 1554.

Jewan Khan Muid Babi by his valour and family popularity possessed himself of the soubahdary of Gujerat, and although he never received regular investiture from Delhi, continued to exercise a sovereign authority, and made the annual collections for a considerable period. In 1774 the Babi family lost Ahmedabad to the Maharattas, after a gallant defence, and subsequently many of their other possessions; but notwithstanding these privations, the late Ghazi ud Deen Khan supported the dignity of the Babi family, and his capital was the refuge of the most respectable and noble Mahomedan families, during the Maharatta ascendancy and wane of the crescent. In 1813 the British government interposed its good offices to tranquillize this petty state, and maintain the legitimate succession. On this occasion the Rahdunpoor nabob recognized the supremacy of the Guicowar, and consented to make an annual acknowledgment thereof, by presenting a horse and cloths, through the British resident at Baroda. By this arrangement the influence and control of the Guicowar, in concert with the British authorities, was extended to the borders of the great desert separating Sinde from the province of Gujerat.

No tribute was ever exacted from the nabob of Rahdunpoor by any of the predominating Maharatta governments; but being on terms of friendship with the Guicowar state, he undertook to guard the two passes from Sinde and Ajmeer. To support his authority, which, on account of the rude tribes that compose the mass of his subjects, would otherwise be precarious, he retains mercenaries from Sinde, to which his country is contiguous, and through them controls the wild habits of the Coolies. These last cannot be employed as soldiers, for no discipline can teach them subordination, but on an emergency their services are procurable, at no greater expense than that of their daily subsistence while so employed. In 1815 the nabob's establishment consisted of three palanquins and two elephants, the small remnants of ancient splendour.—(*Public MS. Documents, Carnac, Macmurdo, &c.*)

RAHEIA.—A small town in the province of Agra, fourteen miles S.E. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 2′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E.

RAHOON (*or Rahn*).—A town in the province of Lahore, a few miles distant from the Sutuleje, which here, in the month of April, has the appearance of a canal running in two channels; the first fordable, and in breadth about 100 yards; the second is 350 yards across, the water deep, but not rapid. When the floods are at the highest, the stream is said to expand to the great breadth of one mile and a half. From Rahoon baftaes and piece-goods are carried to the fair at Hurdwar. It stands in lat. 31° 1′ N., lon. 76° E., about twenty miles N.N.E. from Luddeanna.—(*11th Register, Raper, &c.*)

RAHOWRY.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty miles north from Ahmednuggur; lat. 19° 22′ N., lon. 74° 53′ E.

RAICHOOR (*Rachur*).—A district in the province of Bejapoor, situated at the south-western extremity, within the fork formed by the channels of the Krishna and Toombuddra rivers. It properly belongs to the division of Hindostan, entitled India South of the Krishna. The chief towns are Raichoor, Paugtour, and Culloor.

RAICHOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, the capital of the preceding district, forty-two miles north from Adoni; lat. 16° 9′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E. This is an irregularly built town, being an old fort with some new works, commanded by a hill and some rising grounds near

it. In point of rank it was the second town in the jaghire of Bazalet Jung, son to Nizam ul Mulk, the soubahdar of the Deccan, and brother to the late Nizam ud Dowlah. Adoni was his capital, and continued after his death to be that of his son Darah Jah, until Tippoo took it from him, and nearly destroyed it. On this event he removed to Raichoor, which had the advantage of greater distance from so rapacious and formidable a neighbour. Here, however, he suffered nearly as much from his uncle, the Nizam, who imposed so high a tribute, that it reduced him nearly to the condition of a mere renter.—(*MSS.*, *&c.*)

Raidroog (*Raya Durga*).—A small district in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, situated between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude. The chief river is the Vadavati, which in different parts of its course is also named the Hajni and Hoggry; the principal towns are Raidroog, Calliandroog, and Mulkamaroo. The family of Raidroog is descended from the dalawai, or hereditary prime minister of the Bijanagur empire, who on its dissolution seized on Pennaconda and Condrippy. Under Aurengzebe he obtained or seized on additional villages. In 1776 the district was subdued by Hyder, and in 1788 the poligar was captured by Tippoo, and sent to Seringapatam, where he died a violent death. His son and successor, Vincatuppy Naik, was killed in 1791, while attempting to escape from Bangalore. At the peace of 1792 Raidroog was transferred to the Nizam, and in 1790 Gopaul Naik, a descendant by the female line, attempting to raise disturbances, was sent prisoner to Hyderabad. In 1800, in consequence of arrangements with the Nizam, this division was ceded to the British government, from which the poligar's family still receive a pension.—(*Munro, &c.*)

Raidroog.—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, the capital of the preceding subdivision of the province; lat. 14° 10′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E.; 29 miles south from Bellary. This place stands about forty miles north of Chitteldroog. The intervening country is fertile, with very few hills. In 1790 the Maharattas obtained possession of Raidroog, having bribed Tippoo's governor with sixty thousand rupees. Travelling distance from Hyderabad, 232 miles.—(*Moor, Rennell, &c.*)

Rairee.—See Ryeghur.

Raisseen.—A large district in the province of Malwa, of which it occupies the south-western quarter, where it is separated from the Deccan by the Nerbudda river, and the hills extending along its northern bank. It is one of the original Mogul subdivisions of Malwa, and is mentioned by Abul Fazel as containing thirty-two mahals; but until 1818 it could scarcely be said to have been subordinate to any regular government, having become a favourite haunt of the Pindaries, from whence, until extirpated in 1817, they infested the surrounding countries.

Raisseen.—A town and hill fort in the province of Malwa, the former capital of the preceding division, but now much decayed; lat. 23° 31 N., lon. 77° 52′ E.; twenty-three miles N.E. from Bopaul. The country from hence to the Nerbudda is remarkably wild and mountainous, but the hills are not so precipitous as those to the south.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Raja Chohans.—A jungly country in the province of Gundwana, situated between Sohagepoor and Singhrowla. This is an extremely rugged and mountainous tract, very little cultivated, and inhabited by some of the wildest tribes in India. The whole tract is a succession of deep gullies, ravines, chasms, and defiles. The inhabitants call themselves Chohans, and their raja was formerly tributary to the Maharattas, but not remarkable for the punctuality of his payments. The land produces a little rice, Indian corn, and a few smaller grains pecu-

liar to hilly countries. South of Soneput the country becomes more open, but the villages continue very poor, not consisting generally of more than four or five miserable huts; but there is a great abundance of game. Among the animals of a more ferocious nature may be enumerated the royal tiger, leopards, tiger-cats, and large black bears. The principal town is Soneput, the usual residence of the Chohan rajas, who appear to have lived in complete independence before the Maharattas, in 1790, pushed their conquests into these woods and wilds.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

Rajagoolee.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, situated in a beautiful valley on the skirt of a forest, near the verge of the Western Ghauts, about three miles S.W from Diddee. It is surrounded by a good stone wall.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Rajagriha (*or the king's house*).—This and the following article may be considered as relating to the same place, but are kept separate, as the temple stands at some distance from the town.

This is a very celebrated place of Hindoo worship, and for many ages has been one of the principal seats of their superstition, and probably also the seat of empire. The small town of Rajagriha stands on the north side of a ridge of mountains, to which it has communicated its name, about seven miles north-west from Giriyak, supposed to have been the palace of Jarasandha, an acknowledged monarch of India, and several of whose monuments are still shewn in the vicinity of this place. The surrounding country to a great extent is covered with an infinite variety of ruins.

Although the present town of Rajagriha stands on the massy rampart of an old fortress, the natives have no tradition that it ever belonged to Jarasandha; on the contrary, they usually ascribe the works to Shere Shah, the Afghan; but there being two distinct fortifications, one evidently more ancient than the other, it is probable both formerly existed.

Rajagriha stands high, but commencing about a mile east of it, and extending for four miles in that direction, the country is very low. Through this has been constructed a grand mound, almost universally attributed to Jarasandha, the asur or infidel. In a valley formed by the ridges of the Rajagriha hills is a valley supposed to have been the field of battle where Jarasandha fell by the hands of Bheem. The Saraswati rises in this valley, and as it passes the gap between Bipul and Baibhar receives the water of numerous springs, hot and cold, and with the orthodox Hindoos these are objects of worship. Every thirty-first moon, which in the Hindoo calendar is intercalary, about 50,000 persons assemble at these springs, which are the property of a class of Brahmins named Rajagriha, imported many years ago from Dravira, Maharashtra, Carnata, the Concan and Telinga, but who as they now exist are a set of ignorant, clamorous, dirty beggars.

The Jains also claim Rajagriha, and assert that it was the residence of Mahasrenik, Upasrenik, and Srenik of the Jain religion, who possessed a country forty-eight coss in circumference, a mode of expression by which the Jains appear to designate a powerful zemindar or petty prince. The Jains every year resort hither in great numbers, and have built temples on the five hills by which the valley is surrounded. In 1811 there was a Hindoo hermit here who had seated himself in the open gallery of a thatched hut, where he sat all day in the posture in which Buddha is represented, without motion or speech, but well besmeared with cow dung.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Rajaghiri.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, situated at the base of the Rajagriha hills, near the north-west extremity of the range, about sixteen miles south from the city of Bahar. The hills in this

neighbourhood abound with springs of water, both hot and cold, for the reception of which numerous small stone reservoirs have been built, and dedicated, one with another, to almost every divinity of the Hindoo pantheon, with sometimes a small temple on the margin of the fountain. A thermometer immersed in the hottest of these springs in the month of January rose to 102°. On the crest of the mountain, immediately above Rajaghiri, is a temple of great sanctity, dedicated to Parswanatha, which is still resorted to by Jain pilgrims from different parts of India, and in the vicinity of the town below are the remains of an extensive fort, once of considerable strength: a monastery belonging to the sect of Nanok (the Seiks), and a Mahomedan shrine, chiefly remarkable for its sequestered situation.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAKIRA.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-one miles S.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 47 N., lon. 78° 6′ E.

RAJAMAHAL.—This town and adjacent territory belong to the ancient province of Bengal, although now annexed to the division of Boglipoor, which ranks as a Bahar zillah, and under which head further particulars will be found. In old documents it is also named Acbernuggur from its capital, and in the revenue records Cankjole, as being the chief military division. It is situated on the south-western bank of the Ganges, and was formerly the seat of an important military cantonment, on the confines of Bengal, towards Bahar, commanding some of the mountain passes into both countries, particularly the famous pass of Telliagurry, the possession of which was deemed of much consequence in the time of the hostile independence of the two soubahs.

The city of Rajamahal stands on the S.W. side of the Ganges, about seventy miles N.N.W. from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 2′ N., lon. 87° 43′ E. During the reign of the emperor Acber, A.D. 1591, Raja Maun Singh, on his return from the conquest of the Afghans of Orissa, fixed on the town of Agamahal for the capital of Bengal, changing the name to Rajamahal; but by the Mahomedans it is occasionally distinguished by the appellation of Acbernuggur. In 1608 the seat of government was removed from hence to Dacca by Islam Khan, but in 1639 was brought back by Sultan Shujah, the unfortunate brother of Aurengzebe, during whose viceroyalty it attained great importance, being the established metropolis of the Bengal and Bahar provinces, for which it was admirably situated. This prince for his temporary residence erected a splendid building, called the sunggedalan or stone hall, which is now in a miserable state of ruin. A great deal of this edifice has been pulled down for its materials, especially the stones, which have been employed to construct the palaces of the Moorshedabad nabobs, and much has also been removed to make room for modern hovels.

Since the era above-mentioned Rajamahal has necessarily suffered great diminution, which has probably been accellerated by the removal of the British courts of justice to Boglipoor. It is, however, still a large place, but the rubbish and dispersion of the houses render its appearance very dismal. It still contains twelve market-places scattered over an immense extent, and the resident population may be computed at 30,000, besides travellers by land and water, who are always numerous, and the supplying of whom with necessaries forms the principal support of the town. Within its limits is the tomb of Meerun, the son of Jaffier Ali, the predecessor and successor of Cossim Ali. Meerun (by whose orders Serajeud Dowlah was assassinated) was killed by lightning, and buried here in a tomb of small size, but neatly built, and having many flowers planted around. —(*F. Buchanan, Stewart, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

Rajamundry (*Raj Mahendri*).—The third district of the Northern Circars, proceeding from the north, and situated between the 16th and 17th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the district of Vizagapatam; on the south by that of Masulipatam; on the east it has the sea, and on the west the dominions of his highness the Nizam.

The limits of this district have undergone several fluctuations, and are at present but ill defined. Part of the original circar lies to the south, but the greater proportion to the north of the Godavery, which separates it from Ellore. This river divides itself into two great branches, thirty-five miles from the sea, with which it forms the island of Nagarum, a triangular space comprehending 500 square miles, but of great value in proportion to its extent. From the Poliveram zemindary, on the west, the great range of hills limits the circar, and the small river Settieveram describes its boundary towards Cicacole. In 1784 the whole circar of Rajamundry included 1,700 square miles of accessible territory. The intervening space between the small rivers Yellerie and Settieveram is subdivided by water-courses to answer the purposes of irrigation in the two principal zemindaries of Peddapoor and Pettipoor. The island of Nagarum is enclosed by the two greater branches of the Godavery, and intersected by five lesser ones, which render it very productive, it being the grand receptacle of all the slimy mould carried down by the greatest river of the Deccan. The forests of Rajamundry, from the commencement of the hills along the banks of the Godavery, to Paloonshah on the frontiers of Cummumait, produce abundance of teak trees, this being the only country on the east side of the bay of Bengal that produces this durable species of timber.

The cultivation of sugar is carried on to a considerable extent in the Peddapore and Pettipoor zemindaries, along the banks of the Elyseram river, which, though small, has a constant flow of water the whole year, sufficiently large not only to water the sugar plantations during the driest seasons, but also a great variety of other productions, such as paddy, ginger, turmeric, yams, and chilies. This stream of water, during the sultry weather, renders the lands adjoining more fertile than almost any other in the Deccan, and peculiarly fitted for the growth of the sugar-cane. A considerable quantity of sugar is also raised in the delta of the Godavery, and the cultivation might be increased to any amount. They do not attempt to raise a crop from the same spot oftener than every third or fourth year, but during the intermediate time plants of the leguminous tribes are cultivated. Here, on an average, six pounds of juice from good canes yield one pound of sugar. The refuse is given to cattle, or carried away by the labourers, there being no distilling of rum. The cultivation of cotton is general in Rajamundry, but from the nature of the soil and surface, more especially in the remoter parts, the produce is not great in amount or superior in quality.

The principal towns in this zillah are Rajamundry, Ingeram, Coringa, Bundermalanca, Peddapoor, and Pettipoor; but there is little export trade carried on except from Coringa. Some of the villages in the eastern quarter have rather a wilder character than the generality of the hamlets in the plains of the Northern Circars, consisting of small mud huts of a circular form, with only one aperture overgrown with creepers, their enclosures strongly fenced, with narrow winding paths between them. The territory was ceded to the French in 1753, by Salabut Jung, the reigning soubahdar of the Deccan, and acquired to the British by Lord Clive in 1765. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 6,74,550 star pagodas; and in 1822, according to returns made by the collectors to the Madras government, the inhabitants were estimated at 7,38,308

persons.—(*J. Grant, Public MS. Documents, Roxburgh, Hodgson, Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAMUNDRY.—A town in the Northern Circars, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the east side of the Godavery, about fifty miles from its mouth; lat. 16° 59′ N., lon. 81° 53′ E. A ridge of mountains approaches the Godavery at Rajamundry, stretching from the north-west, and the town itself is built on an elevated bank adjoining the river. It is of great length, but narrow, and the principal bazar of two stories, with terrace roofs, a rare circumstance in this part of India. Appearances here indicate a prevailing Mussulman population, for there are several old mosques, and only one pagoda. The old fort is still in existence. It is a quadrangular work, with high walls and an indifferent ditch, and garrisoned by a party of invalids. The zillah court is established here, but the collector resides at Coconada.

During the dry season the Godavery at Rajamundry is a clear blue stream, flowing over an extensive bed of sand, and broken by frequent shoals and islands; but when full, in the months of June and July, it is a mile broad, and makes a grand appearance. Its bed is then deep and very little raised above the level of the sea, in consequence of which, during a remarkable rising of the sea at Coringa in 1784, ships were drifted as high as Rajamundry. Not far below the town the Godavery separates into several branches, forming several fertile deltas and large islands. The banks on both sides are from twenty to thirty feet high, and consist chiefly of hardened clay marle, large portions of which are carried away and deposited elsewhere, causing much contention among the land-owners.

Rajas of Rajamundry are mentioned by Ferishta as independent princes when the Deccan was invaded by Allah ud Deen, A.D. 1295, and it was subjected by the Bhamenee sovereigns of the Deccan in A.D. 1471. Travelling distance from Hyderabad 237 miles; from Madras 365; and from Calcutta 665 miles.—(*Fullarton, Orme, Heyne, Rennell, &c.*)

RAJANAGUR (*Rajanagara*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Puddah or grand trunk of the Ganges, twenty-three miles S. by W. from Dacca; lat. 23° 22′ N., lon. 93° 14′ E.

RAJANAGUR.—A well-built and good-looking village in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, eleven miles N.E. from the town of Rajamundry. There is a temple here dedicated to Mahadeva, and another to Krishna, and on one of their terraces are figures of ascetics in a sitting posture, as large as life, but ill sculptured.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAJAPOOR (*or Dundah Rajapoor*).—A town in the province of Aurungabad, named also Jezira Jessore, belonging to the Siddee family, formerly the hereditary admirals of the Mogul empire, in which naval function they were succeeded by the British government without any regular investiture. Lat. 18° 8′ N., lon. 73° 6′ E., forty-six miles S. by E. from Bombay.

RAJAPULPETTA.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, sixty miles south from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 16° 27′ N., lon. 78° 37′ E.

RAJDEER.—A town in the province of Candeish. The fortifications of this place are in a great measure formed by nature, being merely a high precipitous mountain, possessing no works except such as have been constructed for a narrow traversing footpath, cut through the rock with great labour and secured by gates. The interior is plentifully supplied with water, and when besieged, in 1818, was found provided with one year's provisions; but notwithstanding these precautions, on the opening of the mortar batteries the garrison evacuated the place, and it was taken possession of without the death of a single man.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

RAJGHUR.—A large and strongly-fortified town in the province of Agra, principality of Macherry, situated within a recess of the hills; lat. 27° 14′ N.

RAJGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, the capital of the modern division of Omutwara, and residence of the Rawut Mohun Singh; lat. 23° 59′ N., lon. 76° 49′ E. Prior to 1820 it had suffered greatly from the ravages of the Pindaries and Grassias, and the rawut then paid tribute to Sindia. In 1819 the gross revenue amounted to about 50,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RAJGHUR. — A small town in Northern Hindostan, eleven miles west of the Chour station; lat. 30° 49′N., lon. 77°28′ E., 7,115 feet above the level of the sea.

RAJNUGUR.—A town, the capital of a small district in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles N.W. from Punnah; lat. 24°54′N., lon. 79°52′E.

RAJODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, forty-six miles W. by S. from Oojein; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 75° 9′ E.

RAJOO.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the right bank of the Mahanuddy, at its junction with the Pyri, about twenty-seven miles to the south of Ryepoor. It is still celebrated for the temple of Rajoo Lochun, and for an annual festival in honour of that deity. It contains images of Ramachundra, Garura, Hunimaun, and Jagath Pal, the raja who is said to have constructed the temple. Besides the above there are various other shrines, sanctuaries, and mythological sculptures. On a small rocky island at the junction of the Pyri and Mahanuddy is a temple dedicated to Mahadeva, under the epithet of Kuleswara.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

RAJOORA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, fifty-three miles N.E. from Diu head; lat. 21° 2′ N., lon. 71° 40′ E.

RAJPEPLA.—A division of Gujerat, comprehending several rugged tracts, interspersed between that province and Candeish, and extending from the Nerbudda to the Tuptee, forming the eastern boundary of such parts of the Broach and Surat districts as lie betwixt these rivers. To the east it is bounded by the petty state of Akrany; on the west by the Broach pergunnah; its northern boundary is the Nerbudda, and its southern Candeish, the Mundavie territory, and the pergunnah of Wusravie. Its extreme length has been estimated at 100 miles; its breadth varies from forty-five to sixty miles.

The pergunnahs of Nandode, Wasseeter, Bhalode, and Gowalee, situated on the banks of the Nerbudda, being subject to its inundation, are fertile and productive, and formerly the Rajpepla territory supported 500 towns and villages; but such had been the distracted state of the country from 1803, that in 1815 only fifteen villages remained, and the vast wastes of Rajpepla became an asylum for every species of marauders and a depôt for their booty. The cornelian mines are found in the vicinity of Ruttunpoor (ruttun, or ratna, signifying a gem), and are principally worked by Bheels, who are the operative miners. The climate is unhealthy, and particularly destructive to strangers, and the water, according to native accounts, is detestable. The country is thinly inhabited by a wild race of mountaineers, mostly of the Bheel and Rajpoot castes; and so late as 1821 the towns and villages were mostly deserted, the regular inhabitants having migrated to the British territories.

The state of Rajpepla is tributary to the Guicowar, and in 1815 was nominally governed by a minor raja, ten years of age, named Pertaub Singh.

In 1821 the land assessment was fixed at......................	Rs. 2,29,278
The expenses of the principality were	90,060
Carried forward ...	1,39,218

Brought forward ...	Rs. 1,39,218
Deduct tribute to the Guicowar...... Rs. 75,000	
Provision for the widow of R.msingh ...8,400	
	83,400
Leaving ...	Rs. 55,818

for the liquidation of the government debts, exceeding thirty lacks of rupees. The revenue, however, was considered susceptible of improvement, and Mr. Willoughby had effected an amicable settlement with the Bheels; but the annals of Rajpepla, for many years, present a most distressing history of the anarchy and rapine that had devastated this petty state, and almost annihilated its population.—(*Public MS. Documents, Willoughby, &c.*)

Rajpepla.—A town in the province of Gujerat, thirty-four miles east from Broach, the former capital of the preceding division; lat. 21° 46′ N., lon. 73° 45′ E. The village of Pepla stands on the top of a lofty mountain, and is now called Toona, or Old Pepla, to distinguish it from the new village of that name. It is situated in a country almost inaccessible to any but Bheels, the road leading over high hills covered with jungle, it having been formerly a place of refuge. Vestiges of the town are still occupied by Bheels, the modern capital being Nandode, and the country designated in the Mogul records as Nadowt, or Nundode.—(*Willoughby, &c.*)

Rajpoor (*Rajapura*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, ninety-six miles N.N.W. from Goa; lat. 16° 40′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E.

Rajpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighteen miles from Kooksee; lat. 22° 15′ N., lon. 74° 24′ E. In 1820 this was the head-quarters of Muzzaffer, an Arabian jemadar, and head manager to Jeswunt Singh, the raja of Ally and Mohun. It stands on the high road from Malwa to Gujerat, and is surrounded by a thick jungle, cultivated in some spots b the Bheelala tribe.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Rajpootana (*Rajputrana*).—Se Ajmeer Province.

Rajshahy.—A district in the pro vince of Bengal, of which it occupie the central parts, and situated princ pally between the twenty-fourth an twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude To the north it is bounded by Dinage poor and Mymunsingh; on the sout by Birboom and Kishnagur; to th east it has Dacca Jelalpoor and My munsingh; and on the west Bogl poor and Birboom. This was for merly the most extensive and un wieldy zemindary in Bengal, and i 1784 comprehended, according t Major Rennell's computation, 12,90 square miles, yielding a revenue c twenty-four lacks of rupees.

Rajshahy is intersected in its whol length by the Ganges, or lesser branch es, with many navigable rivers an fertilizing streams; and so watery i its nature, that from the beginning o July to the end of November it i nearly submerged. In times of re mote Hindoo antiquity the particula portion thus subject to prolonged in undation was named the region o Varendra. The northern portion o the district, as it is now constituted presents neither elevation, forest road, or watercourse, by the assump tion of which a definite boundary might be fixed. In the vicinity o Hurrial the face of the country is ex ceedingly wild and woody, and other wise fitted for the harbour of dacoits For the protection of the jeels, or shallow lakes, a swift guard-boat, of sixteen oars is retained, commanded by a jemadar, who is especially recommended to superintend the Chillam Jeel, the largest expanse of water of this description in Bengal. In 1820 government relinquished the repairs of a considerable portion of the embankments in Rajshahy, which always failed when the rivers were highest, and subjected the vicinity to sudden and mischievous inundations. On the other hand, when the rains were scanty, they were cut by the natives,

who, indeed, were always adverse to their being maintained.

In A.D. 1725 this zemindary was conferred on Ram Jevon, a Brahmin, and founder of the present family; but since that period it has suffered much dissection, and little space comparatively now remains to his descendants. From the low surface of the country it is ill adapted for the erection of solid edifices, and accordingly few are seen, and those mostly Hindoo temples, or the more transitory dwellings of Europeans. There is no fort within the district, except one belonging to the nabob of Moorshedabad, at Godagaree, built in former times as a place of refuge for the nabob's family, but now in a most ruinous condition. The chief towns are Nattore, Bauleah, and Hurrial, besides which there are many populous and commercial villages. Until the separation, in modern times, of several important pergunnahs, Rajeshahy produced four-fifths of all the silk, raw or manufactured, used in or exported from Hindostan. In 1814 the jumma, or land-assessment to the revenue, was 14,69,814. Prior to the separation of the pergunnahs above alluded to, the number of inhabitants was computed at 1,997,763; but in 1801 they were estimated in round numbers at 1,500,000, in the proportion of two Hindoos to one Mahomedan.—(*Wynch, C. Græme, jun., A. Gardner, J. Grant, &c.*)

RALDING.—A principal peak of a cluster in Northern Hindostan, situated above Murang, on the left bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 29' N., lon. 78° 22' E.; elevation above the level of the sea, 21,411 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

RAMA CAPE.—A promontory in the province of Bejapoor, on the west coast of India, within the Goa territory; lat. 25° 5' N., lon. 74° 2' E.

RAMA SERAI.—A fertile valley in Northern Hindostan, division of Roween, situated between the Tonse and Jumna, and traversed by the Rama stream, from which it derives its name; lat. 30° 50' N., lon. 78° 3' E.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

RAMAPATAM.—A pleasant village a mile from the sea-shore, in the Carnatic province, and district of Nellore, about five miles N. from the town of Nellore, with a bungalow for the accommodation of travellers.

RAMDROOG (*Rama Durga*).—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, forty-three miles S.E. from Bellary; lat. 14° 44' N., lon. 77° 31' E.

RAMGAON (*Rama grama*).—A village in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, situated on the declivity of a high and steep mountain, near the great road from Almora to Rohilcund, by the Bamouree pass, and about seventeen miles south from the town of Almora. An excellent bridge, constructed of logs, on the principle of the hill Sanga, but eight feet wide, and with a light parapet railing on each side, has recently been thrown across the mountain torrent which flows at the bottom of the deep dell below Ramgaon, and near it a small house has been erected by government, with a commissariat depôt annexed, for the accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMGERRY (*Rama giri*).—A small town in Mysore, forty-eight miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 43' N., lon. 77° 25' E. Lac is produced in several of the neighbouring hills, upon the tree called jala, but cattle is the principal object of the people round this place. In all diseases of the ox kind the remedy is actual cautery, fancifully applied in different places. Although the killing of an animal of the cow kind is considered worse than murder by the Hindoos, there is no creature whose sufferings exceed those of the labouring cattle in Hindostan.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RAMGHAUT (*Ramaghat*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Ganges, which in the dry season is here fordable;

lat. 28° 10′ N., lon. 78° 12′ E., seventeen miles S.S.E. from Anoopshehr.

RAMGHAUT.—One of the passes through the western ghaut mountains, descending from the elevated province of Bejapoor to the Portuguese territories subordinate to Goa. The greatest height of this pass above the sea is said to be about 2,200 feet. The pass was formerly very difficult and rugged, with frequent steep and sharp turnings, so as to be almost impracticable for loaded cattle; but in 1820 a detachment of Madras pioneers were employed in widening it, and forming a carriage road like that down the Bhore Ghaut. From the small temple of Siva at the summit, called Rama Lingam pagoda, to the foot of the ghaut is a distance of about three miles and a half. The descent is by regular gradations, through an uninterrupted tract of forest, without any of the bold mural precipices or magnificent chasms which distinguish the scenery of the Bhore Ghaut. The teak tree is not found in this part of the ghauts, poon being the prevailing timber. There is a belt of fine open forest, free from underwood, extending eastward for a space of ten miles from the top of the pass, and the first tract of cultivated land, going west, is at the frontier Portuguese village of Barry, seven miles and a half from the base.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMGHEER (*Ramaghiri*).—A district in the province of Hyderabad, situated towards the north-eastern extremity, and extending across the Godavery, which intersects it; but only the portion situated to the south of that river is subject to the Nizam's authority, the rest belonging to the wild Hindoo province of Gundwana. The town of Ramgheer stands in lat. 18° 27′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E., 100 miles N.N.E. from Hyderabad.

RAMGHUR.—A fort in Northern Hindostan, principality of Hindoor, situated among the hills, and lately much increased and strengthened: lat. 31° 5′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E., elevation above the level of the sea 4,054 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

RAMGHUR (*Ramaghara*).—A hilly and mountainous district, the jurisdiction of which, since it has been new modelled and extended, occupies the whole southern quarter of the Bahar province. To the north it is bounded by the district of Bahar Proper; on the south by Jushpoor, Gangpoor, and Singhboom; to the east it has Boglipoor and the Jungle Mahals; and on the west Billounja, Sirgoojah, and Jushpoor. In 1784 Chuta Nagpoor, Palamow, and Ramghow, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, contained 21,732 square miles, of which 16,732 were nearly waste.

A great proportion of this division is, from its situation, rocky and unproductive, and can never be brought into a better condition unless great encouragement be held out to the clearing of woods hitherto impenetrable; and such is the uncivilized state of the district generally that a great majority of the natives cannot be expected to understand the laws by which they are governed.

The soil of Ramghur on the declivities is principally loam; in the high ground it consists of a mixture of loam, clay, and gravel, with mica, on which pulses of different sorts are grown, and also cotton. The supply of water for domestic purposes is procured from rivers, rivulets, nullahs, jeels, wells, and tanks; but the last is generally preferred by the natives. Water that is clear and void of taste they consider the best, and do not esteem running water, which, flowing through woody and mountainous countries, is usually impregnated with minerals and astringent vegetable substances. The water, however, of large rivers, where these extraneous ingredients are much diluted, is usually good; and troops marching through hilly and woody countries, in general suffer much more from the water of small streams and nullahs than from that of tanks or large rivers. At Pinnar Coond,

in this district, there is a remarkable hot well. The rivers of Ramghur, Chuta Nagpoor, and Sirgooja, are mostly shallow, and never full except during the rains, when they flow with great rapidity. The banks are covered with rank weeds and exuberant vegetation, which is often swept away by the torrent. Rivers which during the floods contain from fifteen to twenty feet of water, fall soon after to two or three feet, and soon after dry up. The mountains of this district are wholly covered with trees, brushwood, and jungle, which forests extend far into the adjacent countries.

Commercial transactions are very insignificant, and confined mostly to the mere interchange and barter of commodities for domestic consumption. The hills abound with iron, which is collected and fused by the natives in their rude manner, and is the principal article of exportation; but the want of navigable rivers is a great obstruction to the enlargement of this traffic. The great Benares road passes through Sheregotty, and there is a distinct road that branches off from this grand trunk at Konachitty, and runs north-west to Chittra. There is also a road that runs north-east from Chittra, and afterwards falls into the great road at Sheregotty. There are many old brick forts in Ramghur, the destruction of which was recommended at an early period by the magistrate, as they afforded protection to refractory zemindars and hordes of irregular banditti. There are very few durable buildings; nor are there any private schools, or seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahomedan law, education not extending beyond the accomplishments of reading and writing.

The seasons here, as elsewhere in Hindostan, may be divided into hot, cold, and rainy. The cold season commences about the end of October and terminates in the beginning or middle of March, when the hot season commences, and lasts till the middle of June The rains then set in, and continue till about the middle of October, gradually decreasing towards the conclusion. The healthy season may be said to be from November to the setting-in of the rains; and the most unhealthy months, September and October. Traces of lead have been discovered at the base of a mountain in Ramghur called Mucundgunge, and antimony is said to be found, while iron abounds every where, more particularly at Balleah, in the mountains, where it is smelted in considerable quantities by native metallurgists. A few miles east of Hazary Baugh are beds of very fine mica, from which large transparent laminæ are procured.

In Ramghur the mouhur tree grows spontaneously and in great abundance, among the rocky and otherwise barren parts of the mountains, and provides the natives with a convenient substitute for grain, as it will keep, when pulverized, for a whole season. By the natives, however, it is principally used for making an infusion like tea, which affords a nourishing and wholesome beverage; but this process has been construed as coming within the regulations against illicit distillation. The principal rivers are the Dummodah and Burrakur; the principal towns Chittra (containing the civil establishment and gaol), Ramghur, Hazary Baugh, and Sheregotty. Throughout the eastern part of the district, and in the adjacent tracts of the Jungle Mahals, the buffaloe is used for draught and for the plough, instead of the ox. The former is a hardy and powerful animal of its class; yet six of them are required to move the same load that a pair of miserable starved bullocks would be set to draw in the plains. This waste of strength is mainly attributable to the extreme rudeness of the hill cart, which is mounted on circular pieces of board for wheels, and is almost as much inferior to the Bengal hackery, as the latter is to the English waggon.

Ramghur is but thinly inhabited, and a great majority of the natives are Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion. One estimate makes the

inhabitants of Ramghur Proper amount to half a million, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to thirty Hindoos. The inhabitants of the most frequented towns differ not at all in feature, and very little in their language, from those of the adjacent plains, whence their progenitors in all probability migrated. The raja of Chuta Nagpoor, who formerly exercised an independent jurisdiction within the limits of his own territories, is highest in rank; but there are besides many zemindars of extensive possessions and considerable personal influence.

This district has been long fatally distinguished for the numerous crimes and devastations committed, and the annual loss of many valuable soldiers from the unhealthiness of the country. The inhabitants of the adjacent plains have an unconquerable aversion to a residence in the hills, owing to the pestilential distempers they generate, as well as to the extreme barbarity of the hill natives, and the abundance of beasts of prey, bears, tigers, wolves, and hyenas. Theft is common throughout Ramghur; but murder more prevalent among a particular class, which are the slaves possessed by chiefs inhabiting the mountainous and inaccessible interior, and of savage and ferocious habits. When petty disputes occur, these slaves are compelled by their masters to perpetrate any enormity, and are more especially employed for the purposes of assassination. Any hesitation or symptoms of repugnance on the part of the slave is attended with instant death, which is equally his fate should he fail in the attempt. On the other hand, if he succeed he is sought out by the officers of government, and executed as a murderer. The usual police has hitherto been unable to seize the cowardly instigator, and if recourse be had to a military force he retires to the jungles. Neither do the slaves attach the slightest idea of guilt to the murders they are thus delegated to commit; on the contrary, when taken, invariably confess, and appear to expect applause for having done their duty. Murder is also frequently committed through the mere ignorance and superstition of the people, who often put individuals to death under a belief that they practise magical influence, and make a destructive use of their knowledge. Lastly, the ready cash of the Hindoo pilgrims, proceeding through this district to the different places of Hindoo worship, sometimes proves too strong a temptation for poverty to resist, and murder is resorted to as the most effectual mode of concealment.—(*Fullarton, Breton, W. T. Smith, Lord Teignmouth, J. Grant, &c.*)

Ramghur.—A village in Northern Hindostan due south of Almora, situated on the banks of a rapid stream in a narrow winding valley, the sides of which rise to a great height, and are cultivated in narrow terraces with the most persevering industry, although the soil is so stony that many of the little fields more resemble the deposit of a torrent than an arable piece of land. The government warehouse and guard-house stand at a little height above the village. While subject to the Gorkhas there was a castle here, now dismantled and gone to decay. Iron ore is found here, which the inhabitants wash from its grosser deposits, and transport to Almora to be smelted.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Ramghur.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, situated on the banks of the Dummodah river, about 190 miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 38′ N., lon. 85° 43′ E. It originally communicated its name to the district, but has since fallen to a secondary rank.

Ramgunga River (*Rama Ganga*).—This river has its source in Northern Hindostan among the Kumaon mountains, about twenty-five miles N.W. from the fortress of Almora, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction through the province of Rohilcund, with a very winding stream, until it falls into the Ganges not far from Kanoje, having performed a course, including wind-

ings, of about 300 square miles, and received the accession of many rivers.

RAMGUNGE (*Rama Ganj*).—A town in the province of Oude, twenty-seven miles S.W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 38′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E.

RAMGUR (*Rama ghara*).—A town in the province of Orissa, situated on the south side of the Mahanuddy river, 106 miles W from Cuttack; lat. 20° 26′ N., lon. 84° 26′ E. The chief of this place in 1803 became a British tributary.

RAMGURRAH.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eighteen miles N. by E. from Bellary; lat. 24° 3′ N., lon. 80° 24′ E.

RAMISSERAM (*Rameswaram, the pillar of Ram*).—An island in the straits between Ceylon and the continent, being separated from the latter by a narrow channel. In length it may be estimated at eleven miles, by six the average breadth, and is low, sandy, uncultivated, and covered with a thin baubool jungle; lat. 9° 18′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E.

On his return from the conquest of Ceylon, after destroying Ravan, the king of the Rashasas (or opponents of the demi-gods), Ram, an incarnation of Vishnu, reflected that during his wars many Racshasas, who were also Brahmins, had been destroyed, by which feats he had incurred the heaviest guilt; to expiate these crimes therefore he set up an image of the lingam at Ramisseram, which he ordered to be worshipped, and it thenceforward became a place of pilgrimage. Such is the traditional account of this celebrated pagoda, which still remains in a tolerable state of repair. The entrance to it is by a lofty gateway about 100 feet high, covered with carved work to the summit. The door is about forty feet high, and composed of single stones, placed perpendicularly, with others crossing over; the massiveness of the workmanship resembling the Egyptian or Cyclopean style of architecture. The square of the whole is about 600 feet, and it is probably one of the most superior native edifices in India. None are permitted to enter the inner temples except the attendant Brahmins, who live in the town, and have their share of the offerings. The idol uses no other water but that brought from the Ganges, which is poured over him every morning, and then sold to the devout, thus yielding a considerable revenue to the temple.

The guardianship of this sacred isle is hereditary in a family of devotees, the chief of which is named the Pandaram, and doomed to perpetual celibacy, the succession being carried on by the sisters, or by the collateral branch. The greater part of the income is applied to his use, or to that of his relations, who have possessed the supreme power about 120 years. When Lord Valentia visited this island in 1803, the Pandaram solicited his lordship's protection for the deity and his temple.

Panban, the port of the island, is about nine miles from the great temple, the road to which has been paved the whole way by the contributions of the pious. A stranger is much struck with the breadth and regularity of the streets, the number and elegance of the stone choultries, and the extraordinary neatness of the dwellings of the Brahmins, many of them fantastically adorned in front with mythological paintings. In the inner court-yard of the Pandaram's residence is a bungalow furnished in the English style, from the top of which there is a commanding view of the ocean, whence the interminable black line of rocks, stretching across the gulf of Manaar, and known by the name of Adam's bridge, is discernible. About two miles north-east of the town, on the highest point of a rock, a small temple commemorates the spot from whence Rama is said to have directed the operations, while the bridge was constructing by Hunimaun, and his brigade of gigantic monkeys. At the south-eastern extremity of the island is the sacred bathing place, where, in the very sanctuary of Brahminical superstition,

and close by the choultry and tank made for the accommodation of pilgrims, is a Roman Catholic chapel, with a subsisting establishment of Christian priests.

The strait here is about a mile wide, but not passable except by very small vessels. The bed is rocky, and the entrance from the north only 100 feet wide, between two rocks; and as another directly faces it, and the current is rapid, much caution is necessary to navigate it in safety. In A.D. 1310 the Mahomedans under Mallek Naib invaded the Carnatic, and pushed their depredations as far as Ramisseram, where they erected a mosque; but the pagoda still enjoys its reputation for sanctity, and continues to be much visited by devotees, mendicants, anchorets and ascetics, from the remote and crafty province of Bengal. These pilgrims usually proceed in companies on foot as far as Durbhasana, after which (according to their own account) two days are occupied in passing through a wilderness to the sea-side, where they procure a boat, and cross to the island. They commonly carry water from the other sacred places they have visited, and pour it over the lingam erected at this place.

In ancient times Ramisseram was a noted point in Hindoo astronomy, to the meridian of which many Telinga and Tamul astronomers referred their calculations. Col. Lambton found it to lie 79° 22′ 5″ east of Greenwich, and 3° 28′ 50″ east of Lanca, the grand Hindoo meridian. —(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Ward, Warren, Mackenzie, Scott, &c.*)

RAMNAD (*Ramanatha*).—A town and large zemindary in the Southern Carnatic, situated about 123 miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 23′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E. The Ramnad pollam, or estate, was granted to the ancestors of the present family, with the title of Sethepaties, for the defence of the road and protection of the pilgrims resorting to the sacred pagoda at Ramisseram. The whole zemindary does not contain a hill, nor is it in general so dry as that of Shevagunga, having of late years suffered from the overflowing of the Vyar river, and in the vicinity of Kilcarry there are salt marshes communicating with the sea. There are also some tracts of cotton ground.

The town of Ramnad has an irregular appearance, and has of late suffered much from the epidemic, which so greatly depopulated this quarter of India. Here is a fort commenced many years ago by the late ranny's ancestors, but never completed. It contains the palace, which is a gloomy building, with gloomy walls, and no external windows. The hall of audience is covered with mythological paintings; but in 1820 the whole building was in a wretched and forlorn condition, and had been long untenanted. Near to it are the tomb of the late ranny's deceased husband, and a Protestant church of neat architecture. The town walls are of massive stones, with loopholes on the top, but without any cannon mounted. The great tank at Ramnad, where the Vyar river terminates its course, and which is not usually filled for seven years together, in 1810, owing to the redundant rains, burst its banks and run into the sea. The ranny mentioned by Lord Valentia has been dead for many years, and the succession was so strongly disputed, that in 1820 it was under appeal to the king and council, the British government in the mean time collecting the revenues, which in 1809 amounted to about 1,10,226 star pagodas.—(*Hodgson, Lord Valentia, Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMNAGHUR (*Rama Nagara*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, district of Benares, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, a little above the western extremity of the city of Benares. The raja usually resides in the fort of Ramnaghur, which is a huge pile of stone-building projecting into the river. He possesses also in this vicinity an elegant garden arranged after the Hin-

doo fashion, and adorned with a fine tank, summer-houses, and a magnificent bath of stone. The mythological sculptures on a pagoda near this spot, left unfinished by Raja Cheit Singh, have been much admired for the elaborate style of their execution. Cheit Singh intended to build a grand town at Ramnaghur on a regular plan, and with wide streets, after the European fashion. This purpose was frustrated by his deposition, but a tolerable idea of its scope may be formed from the two spacious streets, crossing each other at right angles, which compose the existing town of Ramnaghur.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMNAGUR.—A considerable town in the province of Bahar, in the terrai of Chumparun, which in 1814 was inhabited by the exiled raja of Tanеer and his followers; lat. 27° 10′ N.

RAMNAGUR.—The ruins of an ancient fortress in the province of Delhi, division of Rohilcund, several miles in circumference; lat. 28° 22′ N. It appears to have had thirty-four bastions, and is known in the neighbourhood by the name of the Pandoos fort.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

RAMNAGUR.—The ruins of an ancient palace situated on the left bank of the Nerbudda river, sixteen miles above the fort of Mundelah, where some ancient inscriptions have been recently discovered by Capt. Fell.

RAMNEE.—A remarkable snowy peak in Northern Hindostan, visible from Bareily estimated to be 22,768 feet above the level of the ocean; lat. 30° 20′ N., lon. 79° 38′ E.; fifty miles north from Almora.

RAMOO.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated near the southern extremity of the Chittagong district, sixty miles south from Islamabad; lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 92° 20′ E. The Bakally or Ramoo river is one of the most considerable in the south of Chittagong; the bottom is mud, and although the water be fresh, the tide ascends for a considerable distance. By all the nations of the Burmese race this river is named the Paengwa. The vicinity of Ramoo being a fertile and populous plain, and the medium of all intercourse carried on in the neighbourhood of the Nauf river, if any ground could be found not flooded by the rains, it would be an eligible position for a frontier station towards Arracan; but, unfortunately, from the hills to the sea no spot of ground more than fifty yards square beyond the level of the inundation is to be found. The place is also known from experience to be singularly unhealthy; yet it apparently suits the temperament of the Mughs, who set all malaria at defiance.—(*F. Buchanan, Colonel Thomas Morgan, &c.*)

RAMPOOR (*Rama pura*).—A large town in the province of Delhi, the jaghire and residence of a Rohillah nabob, where the Pushtoo or Afghan language is still much spoken, and the genuine Afghan manners and customs retained. It stands on the banks of the Cosila; lat. 28° 50′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E., eighteen miles east from Moradabad.

This town and attached territory, at the peace of Loldong in 1774, were secured to Fyzoola Khan, a Rohillah chief, at which time the revenue was valued at thirty lacks of rupees per annum. During the life time of Fyzoola Khan Rampoor was very prosperous, and at his death comprehended a space four miles in circumference, surrounded by a thick bamboo hedge, within which were mud fortifications. On the death of Fyzoola Khan in 1794, his eldest son Mahomed Ali succeeded, but was soon afterwards assassinated by his second son Gholaum Mahomed, who seized the throne. A British force was marched to expel the usurper, which was attacked by the Rohillah army within a few miles of Bareily; but they were repulsed after a severe action, in which the former had 600 men and fourteen officers killed and wounded. Gholaum Mahomed sur-

rendered soon afterwards, and the accumulated treasures of Fyzoola Khan, amounting to 332,000 gold mohurs (£607,000), were delivered up to Asoph ud Dowlah, who presented the British army with eleven lacks of rupees (£127,000). Possession was also taken of the Rampoor jaghire for the Oude government; but a jaghire or estate was reserved for Ahmed Ali Khan, a minor, the grandson of Fyzoola Khan, of which the town of Rampoor formed part, with a revenue of about ten lacks of rupees. In 1808 it yielded 10,69,077 rupees.

Whatever misgovernment this territory may have undergone, it certainly has not had the effect of checking the productive energies of the soil or inhabitants, for a more richly cultivated tract of country, in 1820, was scarcely to be seen in India. The town of Rampoor is still a large and populous place, though built in a straggling manner, and composed principally of mud huts. The only good streets are the chowk and another which crosses its western extremity at right angles. The old and new forts both open into the latter. These are brick buildings, containing various edifices for the accommodation of the nabob and his family. The chowk is decorated with a lofty mosque. The favourite personal reresidence of the present (1820) nabob, Ahmed Ali Khan, is an indifferent house of three stories, built in the English fashion, and he has also a dwelling at Moradabad. He is fond of field sports, and courts the society of English gentlemen of a similar disposition; but is not much respected by his own subjects. The celebrated bamboo hedge of Rampoor still remains in high beauty, but it probably never was of any formidable depth, and as it might be easily penetrated in many parts, it could afford no effectual protection against an active enemy. The mud walls within the fence are falling to decay. The remains of Fyzoola Khan are deposited in a mausoleum raised on an extensive terrace of masonry, in the plain to the north of the town, where it is shaded by a thick bower of the peepul tree.—(*Fullarton, Public MS. Documents, Colonel Franklin, Rennell, Elphinstone, &c.*)

RAMPOOR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fourteen miles S. by W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 47′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

RAMPOOR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, situated immediately to the north of Rooderpoor, from which it is separated by the stream of the Goula, forty-one miles N. from Bareily, and twenty-three from the base of the northern mountains at Bamooree.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RAMPOOR.—A town in Northern Hindostan, the capital of the Bussaher principality, seventy miles north from Nahan; lat. 31° 27′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E.; 3,300 feet above the level of the sea. It stands on the left bank of the Sutuleje, which here, in the month of June, is only 210 feet wide, and being confined by lofty precipices, foams and dashes below. In the days of its prosperity it is said to have contained three or four hundred houses, with a large well-filled bazar; but in 1816 there were not above 150 stone dwellings slated, with a few others, rather better, belonging to the raja. Before the Gorkha invasion it was a sort of entrepôt between Cashmere, Lahdack, Cashgar and Yarcund, with Hindostan, for which commerce the passage of the river Sutuleje forms a convenient route. It is still a place of considerable sanctity, and possesses several small temples, well supplied with Brahmins and religious mendicants. The communication over the Sutuleje to the Cooloo side is by the hill bridge, named a jhoola, which consists of some ropes drawn across, which are traversed by a block of wood, on which the passenger sits, and is drawn across the river, which rushes below with a furious stream. During the fair an assemblage of Tartars, Gerards, and other traders collect to the number

of 3,000.—(*James Fraser, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Rampoora.—A large walled town in the province of Malwa, the former residence of the Holcar family; lat. 24° 27′ N., lon. 75° 32′ E., and elevated 1,360 feet above the level of the sea. The Cheetore range of mountains, which extends on the north of Rampoora, forms one of the boundaries of Malwa. This place stands on the north bank of the Taloye river, distant about one mile, and was a place of great note before the removal of the Holcar family to Indore. To the north-east there is a Hindoo temple of some celebrity, which is visited by the pious of that faith during the month of April.

In 1818 a division of infantry under Roshun Beg and Roshun Khan, which had belonged to Holcar's army, and continued refractory after the battle of Maheidpoor, was attacked by the army under General Brown, and nearly destroyed, although the two Roshuns escaped. Subsequently, in order to consolidate the possessions of Ghuffoor Khan, Rampoor was conferred on him.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Rampora.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eighteen miles N.N.W. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 23′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E.

Ramree.—A portion of territory in the British province of Arracan, situated about lat. 19° N., which in 1826 was established to be an island, being in that year circumnavigated by the Osprey gun-pinnace.

The great entrance of the only creek that communicates with the capital of Ramree lies about two miles to the south of the north-east point of the island, which forms the southern boundary of Hastings harbour. About a mile to the north Osprey creek appears, and runs into Ramree creek about midway between the great entrance and the capital, with which there is not any communication by water but through these passages.

At the northern extremity of Hastings harbour lies a ridge of straggling rocks, to the eastward of which a passage takes its course to Mae; to the west of it lies the entrance of the large passage that runs along the east side of Commodore's island, through which channel all vessels of burthen pass into Fletcher Hayes' straits towards Aeng, Talak, Arracan towns, and Combermere bay, which brings them to the sea. Entering the straits, many interesting objects appear: lofty mountains, numerous islands, many openings, &c., forming, within the straits, channels, and passages, which in general, however, afford good anchorage ground. The tide rises at full and change fourteen feet in the straits, channels, rivers, and harbours on the coast.

On the southern extremity of Ramree is a ridge of low hills, among which are several volcanoes, reported to discharge flames occasionally, and quantities of iron pyrites; but in their tranquil state only a greasy mud bubbles up, mixed with a little petroleum. Small volcanoes abound in this vicinity, for there are several on the neighbouring island of Cheduba, mostly of the description called mud volcanoes, strongly impregnated with sulphur. These volcanoes are worshipped by the Mughs and other natives, who think they are occasioned by the great naga or serpent who supports the world, and takes this method of giving vent to his agony. In 1827 Cheduba continued mostly covered with thick jungle, but well watered by hill streams, on the banks of which patches of tobacco, cotton, red pepper, hemp, sugar-cane, and rice were to be seen, the soil being excellent. In the above year the number of houses in Cheduba amounted to 2,300, the inhabitants to about 12,000 persons; with respect to Ramree, we have as yet had but few statistical details. Up to 1827 no elephants had been discovered on Cheduba. — (*Commodore Hayes, Public Journals, &c.*)

RAMREE.—A town in the province of Arracan, the capital of the preceding island, situated about lat. 19° N., lon. 93° 15′ E.; 117 miles south from Arracan town. In February 1825, when first attacked by the British, they were repulsed; but in the following April it surrendered without resistance, although possessed of strong defences. These consisted of a stockade in the centre of the town, protected by several forts on the adjacent hills, besides entrenchments on the Ramree creek. In 1827 the town of Ramree contained 8,000 inhabitants, who were rapidly increasing.—(*Public Journals, MS. Documents, &c.*)

RAMTEK.—A celebrated temple and place of pilgrimage, devoted to Rama, in the province of Gundwana, dominions of Nagpoor, frequented by worshippers from the neighbourhood, and from the Nizam's dominions north of the Godavery. The number in 1821 were estimated at 100,000.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

RANAPOOR.—A town and small fort of masonry in the province of Gujerat, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda; lat. 21° 57′ N., lon. 73° 20′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar, and contained 200 houses.

RANEAH.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fourteen miles west of Sirsah, formerly the residence of Zabeta Khan, a Bhatty chieftain. In 1810 its population was estimated at 5,000 inhabitants. At Danoor, within six miles of Raneah, there is a fine jeel or shallow lake, which is said to be a continuation of the one at Jindah, the whole (if this report be correct) extending thirty miles, with a wheat cultivation on its banks. We are not informed whether these jeels be permanent, or only created by the rainy season.—(*E. Gardner, Col. Adams, &c.*)

RANEEBAUGH.—A town in Northern Hindostan, opposite to Serinagur, from which it is separated by the Alacananda river; lat. 30°13′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E.

RANKAO.—A low marshy island off the north coast of Sumatra, which produces a large proportion of the raw sago imported into Malacca and Singapoor, for the manufacture of pearl sago. An unconverted race of aborigines, and not the Malays, are the sole cultivators and preparers of the sago.

RANGAMATTY (*rangamati, coloured earth*).—A subdivision of the Rungpoor district, in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the north-eastern extremity. During the Mogul government this extensive tract was comprehended within the jurisdiction of Rungpoor, where it still continues. It stretches on both sides of the Brahmaputra easterly to the confines of Assam, throughout a wild and little cultivated region, and in 1784 was estimated to contain 2,629 square miles, many parts of which were, and still are, capable of cultivation; but at present they yield little to the sovereign except a few elephants of a bad quality, annually caught in the interior and boundary forests. Rangamatty is intersected by the Brahmaputra, and contains the territorial subdivisions of Michpara, Howeraghaut, Bijnee (within the British territories), and the great forest of Parbut Joyaur.—(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, &c.*)

RANGAMATTY.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, the capital of the preceding subdivision; lat. 26° 9′ N., lon. 90° E., fifty-two miles N.E. from the town of Rungpoor. Sixty years ago this place is said to have contained 1,500 houses, several of which were inhabited by Mogul chiefs, and others by Portuguese. At present its condition is very miserable, exhibiting only 250 scattered huts, and of public buildings the vestiges of a fort and mosque. From the town to the forest of Parbut Joyaur some traces of habitations may be observed, with many fruit-trees scattered through the forest. The police office for this division is stationed at Goalpara.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RANGAMATTY.—A village in the province of Bengal, situated on the right bank of the Bhagiratni river below Berhampoor, and rendered conspicuous by its position on an elevated mound of red iron soil, which here pierces the flat alluvial crust that forms the general surface of the country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RANGOON.—The principal seaport in the Burmese dominions, situated in the province of Pegu; lat. 16° 35′ N., lon. 96°25′ E. This town stands on the north bank of the Rangoon branch of the Irawady, about twenty-eight miles above its debouchure into the gulf of Martaban. Its extent along the river is about a mile, and its breadth 650 yards. It is enclosed by a stockade of teak timber and planks from ten to twelve feet high, having two gateways on the northern face, and one on each of the others. From the two northern gateways a good brick road proceeds, running over a gently rising ground, and gradually converging until they meet at the distance of two miles and a half at the Shoedagon pagoda. The space between these roads being tolerably clear of jungle, was after the conquest selected for quartering the British troops. The ground slopes considerably to the west of this triangular space, and the lines rested on a thick wood, which closed in on the north and north-east. On the eastern line particularly, on approaching the pagoda, the ground rises abruptly to an elevation of 200 feet from the surface of the river, and there is an extensive view from the summit over a tract consisting of low rice fields, intersected by the ramifications of the Syriam and Rangoon rivers. The province of which Rangoon is the capital is named by the Burmese Henzawuddy.

The town is divided into streets mostly running parallel, with transverse lines of houses crossing at right angles. The streets are narrow, but formed of pounded brick, with a rise in the centre to throw the water off, and when in tolerable repair are sufficiently commodious. The houses, as among other trans-Gangetic nations, are raised on posts to escape the dirt and stagnant water accumulated below. In the suburbs many of these are raised within high-water mark, when at ebb tide the exhalations from the mud, filth, and putrid fish is most disgustingly offensive. Herds of meagre swine roam about as scavengers by day, and at night are relieved by packs of hungry dogs. The river water is turbid, but (excepting during the hot months, when it becomes brackish) is considered sufficiently wholesome. The climate is very analogous to that of Calcutta, being divided into the cold, hot, and rainy seasons. In November the thermometer ranges from 60° to 86° Fahrenheit, in March and April, even in the course of one day, from 72° to 101°.

The Shoedagon pagoda rises in splendour above the town, presenting a striking contrast to the scene below. It stands on the summit of an eminence, about two miles and a half from the town The conical hill on which it stands is seventy-five feet above the road, and the area at the top comprehends about two acres, in the centre of which space it stands, resembling in shape an inverted speaking-trumpet, 338 feet high (diameter at the base 310 feet), surmounted by a cap or tee of brass forty-five feet high, the whole richly gilded. The two roads to it from the town are crowned on both sides with small Buddhist temples, all private property, every Birman who can afford it making it a point of honour to erect one to Gaudma; but once completed, pay little attention as to their preservation, it being considered much more meritorious to build a new one, even of inferior size, than to repair an old one: the Birman empire is in consequence covered with ruinous temples, pagodas, and chapels mouldering to decay. In 1824 this enormous edifice was converted into a fortress, and garrisoned with a battalion of Europeans, while the numerous smaller religious buildings

that lined the two roads afforded good shelter to a large body of troops. Rangoon also contains a Portuguese and Armenian church.

The arrival of the British fleet here, on the 10th of May 1824, was quite unexpected, the town was in consequence easily captured, the principal civil and military authorities having fled in much consternation. Instead of a flourishing commercial city it presented a most miserable appearance, which rather improved before the British evacuated it. This took place on the 9th December 1826, when it was delivered over to the Burmese authorities, and the garrison embarked for the new settlement of Moulmein.—(*Medical Transactions, Snodgrass, Trant, &c.*)

RANIPOORA.—A small town in the province of Candeish, near the passes of the Satpoora mountains, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa; lat. 21° 40′ N., lon. 74°14′ E., eighty miles E.N.E. from Surat. In 1816 it contained 150 houses, inhabited by Arabs, Maharattas, and Bheels.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

RANNUTEH.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to the Gorkhas of Nepaul, seventeen miles east from Jemlah; lat. 29° 13′ N., lon. 81° 33° E.

RANNYPOOR.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, thirty-five miles S.E. from Jansi; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E.

RANOOJA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Nolye, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia.

RANTAMPOOR (*Rin-t'ham-bhor, properly Rana St'hamba Brahmara, the town of the pillar of war*).—A town and strong fortress in the province of Ajmeer, seventy-five miles S E. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° N., lon. 76°18′ E. This is one of the most inaccessible of Indian fortresses, being situated in the centre of several ranges of hills. It belongs to Jeypoor.

RAREE.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of the Southern Concan, twenty-one miles N.W. from Goa; lat. 15° 43′ N., lon. 73° 48′ E.

RATGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-two miles west of Saugor; lat. 23° 47′ N., lon. 78° 33′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah which, in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and yielded him a revenue of 10,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RATH.—A hilly tract in the province of Malwa, formerly considered as separating that province from Gujerat. The southern portion of this tract, lying between Tandlah and the Nerbudda, constitutes what the Hindoos now term Rath, and comprehends the petty states of Jabbooah, Ally, Babra, Jobut, and lands of several independent chiefs, a great proportion of whose subjects are Bheels. Although a considerable part of this territory consists of rocky hills and thick jungles, yet it contains many fertile and well-watered valleys, lying amidst the successive ranges of its hills, which follow almost invariably a northerly direction, nearly parallel and equi-distant. This country forms an intermediate gradation, elevated above Gujerat, and rising towards Malwa Proper.

Excepting the capitals of the petty states above named, Rath contains few towns or villages, and among the first Jabboosh may be reckoned the principal. The hills here abound in iron ore, and the forests, besides the teak and bamboo, afford many timber trees adapted for ornamental use as well as building. There are several well-frequented roads through the division, connecting Malwa with Gujerat.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RATNAPOORA (*ratna pura, the city of gems*).—A town in the island of Ceylon, forty miles S.E. from Columbo; lat. 6° 39′ N., lon. 80° 33′ E. It is a military post, situated on the right bank of the Kala Ganga, which is thus far navigable for boats. Although not eight miles in a straight direction from the summit of Adam's Peak, the river here is scarcely fifty

feet above the level of the sea.—(*Davy, &c.*)

RATPHRI.—A considerable town in the interior of Siam, above Bankok, which in 1826 was estimated to contain 10,000 inhabitants.—(*Leal, &c.*)

RATTOLAW.—A sea-port town in the Gujerat province, situated on the gulf of Cambay; lat. 22° 3′ N., lon. 72° 15′ E. By arrangements made with the Guicowar in 1802 the British government acquired this harbour, which is on the windward side of the gulf of Cambay, and well calculated, from its situation and easy access, to attract the commerce of the Gujerat peninsula and of the neighbouring country.

RAUJCOTE.—A town near the centre of the Gujerat peninsula, the chief of which, Kooer Dadajee, was in 1809 prevailed on (at least in appearance) to renounce the practice of female infanticide.

RAUJPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, eighty-seven miles N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22° 57′ N., lon. 74° 4′ E.

RAUJGHUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-five miles E. by S. from Kotah; lat. 25° 9′ N., lon. 76° 7′ E.

RAURAH.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to the Gorkhas of Nepaul, fourteen miles N. by E. from Jemlah; lat. 29° 23′ N., lon. 81° 23′ E.

RAVEY (*Iravati*) RIVER.—This is the third river of the Punjab, and the Hydroates of Alexander's historians. Its source has never been satisfactorily ascertained, but it issues from the highlands of Lahore, near the declivity of the Himalaya mountains, from whence it flows in a south-westerly direction, and enters the plains near Rajepoor, from which point the canal of Shahnehr (now extinct) was formerly conducted to Lahore, a distance of about eighty miles. This canal was intended, besides the purposes of irrigation, to supply the city of Lahore with water during the dry monsoon, when most of the Indian rivers are from twenty to thirty feet below the level of their banks. At Miannee ghaut, on the 12th of August 1809, when it had attained its greatest height, the breadth was found to be only 513 yards; the deepest part twelve feet, and that not above forty yards across. In the cold season it is there fordable, not having above four feet of water. In this vicinity it has many quicksands, and its banks are low, but well wooded. The oblique distance from Vizierabad ghaut on the Chinaub to Meannee ghaut on the Ravey is fifty-five miles. This doab is flat land, with tolerably good soil, although more elevated than the doab of the Chinaub and Jhylum.

After entering the plains, the course of the Ravey continues south-west until it passes the city of Lahore, and from thence nearly in the same direction, latterly inclining more to the west, until it unites with the combined waters of the Chinaub and Jhylum near Ahmedpoor, forty miles above the city of Mooltan, after which their rapidity and breadth are particularly noticed by the historians of Timour and Alexander. In respect to its volume of water, this is the least of the Punjab streams, and the whole length of its course to its final junction with the Indus, probably does not exceed 580 miles, including windings.—(*Macartney, Rennell, &c.*)

RAWAIR.—A town in the province of Candeish situated in a pleasant valley, which in 1816 was so devastated by Bheels and Pindaries that it scarcely yielded any revenue; lat. 21° 17′ N., lon 76° 7′ E., ten miles W. by S. from Boorhanpoor.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

RAWAK ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, which forms a harbour on the north-east coast of Wageeoo. The channel is a mile wide, with good mud soundings, from ten to fifteen fathoms. Sago, made up in cakes, may be purchased here in large quantities: fish and turtle

are also plenty. The Malays and natives cut the latter into small pieces and stew it in green bamboos. Goats and fowls are not to be had. —(*Forrest, &c.*)

RAWAN'S HRAD (*or Roodh*) LAKE. —This lake is within a short distance west of Manasarovara, probably not more than ten miles, but being less holy has not been examined with the same attention. Rawan Hrad, by native travellers, was always represented as surrounding and insulating some large portions of rock, a little detached from the great Himachil, but Mr. Moorcroft had reason to believe this description incorrect. According to his observation, the lake consists of two legs or branches, which are long and not very broad. One leg extending towards Manasarovara, is strait, and ends in a point; the other stretches to the south among the hills, and where they diverge, opposite to the town of Darchan *or Gangri*, an angle is formed. To Mr. Moorcroft the eastern limb appeared about five miles in length; but on account of the intervening mountains, no estimate could be formed of the southern limb. A cascade issues from the rocks above Darchan, and falls into the Rawan Hrad, which is supplied by the melting of the snow of the great mountains, on the base of which it is situated. In consequence of these thaws many rivulets are known to proceed from the southern face of the Caila's ridge; but it is also probable a large quantity of water descends from the northern face of the Himalaya chain. At a distance its waters seem of an indigo blue colour. From the west end flows the Satadru or Sutuleje river.

Vast numbers of geese breed on the banks of this lake, which is also probably better stored with fish than Manasarovara, as one edge of its bank is fringed with grass of a considerable height, and there is swampy land at the mouth of streams which discharge its waters into its basin. The natives assert that it is four times larger than Manasarovara. The nam is derived from Rawan, a celebrate demon, the antagonist of the demi gods, and legitimate sovereign o Ceylon, from whence he was expelle by the great Parasu Rama, assisted b the sage counsels of his gigantic prim minister, the monkey Hunimaun.— (*Moorcroft, Webb, &c.*)

RAWEL PINDEE.—A town belong ing to the Seiks in the province o Lahore, about sixty-eight miles eas from the Indus river; lat. 33° 36′ N. lon. 73° 45′ E. Viewed from withou it makes a handsome appearance being composed of terraced houses and is besides of considerable extent and populous. In the immediate neighbourhood the country is open and under tolerable cultivation; bu from Hussein Abdaul to Rawel Pin dee the country is generally waste and much intersected with deep ra vines. The Mogul emperors cut a road through a ridge of hills, abou half way between the two places which remains in good repair. It is about three-fourths of a mile in length, and paved with large masses of hard blue stone, well fitted into each other. The language spoken here by the Seik is the dialect known by the name of the Punjaubee and from this place are usually dated the north-western acbars, or native newspapers, giving an account of the proceedings of the chiefs of Cabul Khorasan, Cashmere, Lahore, and Mooltan, and of their predatory movements. These vehicles of intelligence, however, can never be depended on, being frequently the mere invention of the writer, who at the same time is so little anxious to vary his information, that with a very little modification the news of one year does for that of the succeeding one.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

RAYGHAUT.—A town in the province of Lahore, thirty-eight miles east from Amritsir; lat. 31° 34′ N., lon. 75° 27′ E.

RAYGOPAULPET.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, fifty-one

miles north from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 18' N., lon. 78° 20' E.

RAYGUNGE (*Rayaganj*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, although it has only arisen since A.D. 1780. The streets are narrow, dirty, and confused, but it is a place of great bustle, and crowded with boat-men and drivers of cattle, of which last the inhabitants allege 5,000, loaded, arrive daily. In 1808 it contained 300 dwellings, and about 700 huts.

RECCAN (*or Rakan*) RIVER.—A river on the north-east coast of Sumatra, the entrance of which is about lat. 2° 10' N., lon. 100° 37' E. The mouth is about fifteen miles wide, but it soon narrows further up, and is dangerous on account of the great rapidity of the tides, which run with a bore at the rate of seven miles per hour, and rise to the height of thirty feet.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

RECHNA DOABEH.—A doab in the province of Lahore, bounded by the Chinaub and Ravey rivers, respecting which our topographical information still remains very defective. The extent of the Doabeh Rechna, which is mentioned by Abul Fazel, is considerable, its cultivation more attended to, and its population greater than that of Jennet, as it contains several towns of note, such as Bisooly, Vizierabad, and Eminabad.

REECHWA.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harowtee, surrounded by a substantial stone wall, and in 1820 containing about 1,500 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

REHER.—A town in the province of Delhi, about thirty five miles north from Moradabad; lat. 29° 21' N., lon. 78° 39' E. The word Reher designates a salt earth, and is probably descriptive of the soil, as being either nitrous or saline.

REHMUTPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Mortizabad, containing several Hindoo temples, pleasantly situated on a stream that falls into the Krishna. It belongs to the Putwurden family, and stands fourteen miles from Satara.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

REITAL.—A village in Northern Hindostan, division of Roween; lat. 30° 48' N. In 1817 this place contained thirty-five houses, of two and three stories high. They are substantial and look well externally, but are exceedingly filthy and full of vermin within. They are constructed of the Deodhar and Culon pine, supposed to be the cedar of Lebanon, the most noble and durable of all trees. Reital is 7,108 feet above the level of the sea, and 1,200 above the bed of the Ganges.—(*Captain Hodgson, &c.*)

REJANG.—A country in the island of Sumatra, divided on the north-west from the petty state of Anak Sungei, of which Mocomoco is the capital, by the small river Uri, near that of Kuttaun, which last, with the district of Laboon on its banks, bounds it on the north or inland side. The country of Musi, where the Palembang river rises, forms its limits to the eastward. Bencoolen confines it on the south-east.

The Rejangs are divided into tribes, of which there are four principal ones. They live in villages, each under a head or magistrate styled dupati, and seldom exceed 100 in number. These dupaties meet in a judicial capacity, when the pangeran (a Javanese title), or feudal chief of the country, presides over the whole, but has little or no coercive power. Though the rank of dupati is not strictly hereditary, the son, when of age and capable, generally succeeds his father; if too young, the father's brother, or such of the family as appear best qualified.

The system of letters of the people of Rejang has the same natural order as the Devanagari; but in every series one letter is omitted, because it is never to be found in the languages of the Eastern islanders. The Rejang dialect is formed by a

mixture of the Batta and Malay.—(*Marsden, Jones, Leyden, &c.*)

REMBANG.—A district in the island of Java, which, according to the British census of 1815, contained 158,530 inhabitants, of which number 3,891 were Chinese. The town of Rembang stands in lat. 6° 42′ S., lon. 111° 22′ E., sixty-seven miles N.E. from Samarang. It is large and populous, and has a number of good houses, being healthy, abundantly supplied with provinces, and advantageously placed for trade. The largest portion of the district is set apart for the forest department. A road extends from hence to Solo, through a high and mountainous country.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

REONEE TEMPLE. — A temple in Northern Hindostan, eight miles N.W. from that of Bhadrinath; lat. 29° 40′ N., lon. 79° 31′ E., 6,490 feet above the level of the sea.

RESOULABAD (*Rasulabad, the abode of the prophet*).—A town in the province of Agra, thirty miles S.S.W. from Kanoje; lat. 26° 40′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E.

REUNA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, eighty-six miles S.S.E. from Chatterpoor; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

REWAH (*Reva*).—A division of the Allahabad province, which composed a fourth part of the ancient province of Callinjer, and with Sohagepoor was dismembered from Bhatta by Aurengzebe, and nominally annexed to Allahabad; but it does not appear, according to the European sense of the phrase, that this place was ever effectually brought under the Mogul government, although tribute was occasionally exacted. The town of Rewah stands on the banks of the Bichanuddy river, which runs under the fort in lat. 24° 34′ N., lon. 81° 19′ E., sixty-nine miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. The raja's house is in the fort, which is of stone and very large; the suburbs are extensive, and the country contains several other walled towns, such as Mow, Raypoor, Muckonabad, and Douree. The chief rivers are the Tonse, the Mahana, and the Beghar.

The greater part of the Rewah country is an elevated table-land, supported on the north by an abrupt front of sand-stone rock, which rises almost perpendicular for two or three hundred feet from a sloping base, and viewed from the plains, appears a scarped line of fortified heights. The Rewah raja possesses also a considerable tract below this rocky barrier, which unites by a common boundary with the British dominions. The country in the neighbourhood of these ghauts, and for some miles below them, is covered with jungle: but there are few parts of the British provinces more highly cultivated than the higher regions of Rewah. The condition of the peasantry, nevertheless, appears to be sufficiently wretched, for although their houses are adorned with creepers, and roofed with alternate stripes of red and white tiles, they are on the whole worse lodged than most of the peasantry on the plains. There are not at present any temples of note within the Rewah territories, but the ruins of some, especially near Raypoor, are still extant, and several immense tanks are to be seen. At Myhur there is a curious hill in the shape of a cone and very steep on all sides, on the top of which is a small Hindoo temple, to which the ascent is by 523 steps, each about fourteen inches high, and almost perpendicular.

A large proportion of the waters that fall during the rainy season on the table-land of Rewah is precipitated over its rocky margin in numerous cataracts, so that it is hardly possible at that season of the year to approach the ghauts in any direction from below without having a waterfall in sight. Where these waters chance to have been collected into considerable streams before reaching the precipice, their continued action during a series of ages appears to have formed deep ravines, indenting

sometimes for six or eight miles into the table-land, with mural precipices on each side, thereby giving a wilder and more sublime character to the scenery in the vicinity of the cataracts, and more especially those of the Tonse, Beyhar, and Mahana. The existence of this last (although so close to the British territories) was completely unknown to Europeans until the expedition against Rewah in 1813. That of the Beyhar is one of the highest in the world, being a single unbroken fall of 360 feet.

The cataract of the Tonse, however, about one mile and a half west of the former, though only 200 feet in height, is the grandest of the whole, owing to its immense volume of water, and the fine succession of rapids above the fall. When viewed by Mr. Fullarton towards the conclusion of September 1819, the breadth of the descending column of water appeared to be about sixty feet, and its depth at the very margin not less than eight feet. The fall of the Mahana is at Kentee, about fifteen miles east from that of the Beyhar, and seventy S. by W. from Allahabad. Its height is 310 feet. None of these cataracts are easily accessible, except from the table-land above, which is so flat that the cataracts cannot be seen until within a few yards of them. Their position, however, is indicated by the spray, which may be seen three miles off, and looks like a vapour rising from the surface of the earth.

The modern dominions of the Rewah raja border for a considerable distance on the south-eastern frontier of the most eastern portion of Bundelcund, and join to that part of the Allahabad district situated to the right of the Jumna. In 1810 these territories were an asylum to all the malcontents and criminals, both from the British districts and the Oude dominions. The Singhranah district was then controlled by five native chiefs, whose possessions, comprehending from eighty to a hundred villages each, were subdivided into several zemindaries; but the raja of Mow was the most powerful, and the hereditary chief of the Singhranies. From all these the Rewah raja was sufficiently powerful to levy tribute, having, ever since 1814, successfully pursued a plan of reducing all his feudatories to absolute dependence, before which their subjection was little more than nominal. In 1813 a British detachment entered the Rewah territory, and destroyed a great number of petty forts, to the great joy of the peaceably disposed inhabitants. The annual rent of the tract annexed on this occasion to the British dominions amounted to 40,000 rupees, without including Choorhat or Raypoor.—(*Fullarton, J. Grant, Public MS. Documents, Richardson, &c.*)

REWARY (*Revari*).—A town in the province of Delhi, fifty miles S.W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 17′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E. The Rewary pergunnah was one of those given to the Bhurtpoor raja in 1803, but resumed in consequence of his subsequent treachery. The town is a considerable entrepôt for the commerce carried on from the city and neighbourhood of Delhi to the south-westward. The intercourse is great and constant, and its security as a depôt for valuables contributes greatly to the trade and prosperity of this frontier.—(*Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, &c.*)

RHERA RIVER.—A river in the province of Gundwana, district of Sirgoojah, remarkable for the purity and depth of its stream at all seasons.

RHIO.—A Dutch settlement in the Eastern seas situated near Singapoor, on the island by Europeans named Bintang, but for which the natives have not any name. In 1818 a treaty of commerce was negotiated by Major Farquhar with the raja mooda of Bintang, who signed on behalf of the Sultan of Johore, Pahang, and their dependencies. This settlement has become of more importance to the

Dutch since the cession of their former establishments on the coast of Malacca, and the establishment of Singapoor.

RHOTAS *(Rahatas)*.—A town, with a pergunnah attached, in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, the most westerly of the Bahar province, being bounded in that direction by the Caramnassa; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 83° 50′ E., eighty-one miles travelling distance south-east from Benares.

The fortress of Rhotas stands on the level top of a mountain. The only entrance to it is a very narrow road through a steep ascent of two miles from the bottom of the hill to the gates, which are three in number, one above the other, defended by guns and large stones ready to be rolled down. The square contents of the fortified table-land on the top of the mountain is more than ten miles, which at present presents the aspect of a wilderness overgrown with tree and grass jungle, and exhaling a pestilential vapour for two-thirds of the year. On one side runs the river Sone under an immense precipice, another river in the same manner passes close to the other side, and both meeting a short way below, form the hill into a triangular peninsula. On the third side there is a very deep valley covered with impervious woods, which spread all over the mountain (about 1,000 feet in height), and render the fortress almost inaccessible.

Two gateways and many parts of the battlements are still entire, and the ruins of the palace, gardens, tanks, &c. still exhibit indications of ancient magnificence. With the exception of two Hindoo temples of great beauty, all the other remains are obviously of Mahomedan origin. Shere Shah, the Afghan, took this fortress by a very shallow stratagem from Raja Chintamun, the last of a long dynasty of Hindoo sovereigns, who had for many centuries ruled this quarter of Hindostan. Shere Shah made it a dépôt for his family and treasure, but after his death it must have again reverted to the Hindoos, as in 1575 it was captured from a raja of that faith by the Emperor Acber. For many years subsequent to the conquest of Bahar by the British, an opinion was prevalent among the natives that treasure to a large amount had been concealed in this vicinity by Cossim Ali or his agents, when compelled to evacuate the province in 1764, but subsequent local investigation in 1813 furnished no practical proof of any such deposit having ever been made. In 1819 the fort of Rhotas was occupied by an experimental branch of the government stud, and the beautiful Dewan Khaneh, of which Daniell published a drawing, had been converted into a stable for breeding horses.—*(Fullarton, Stewart, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

RIAO ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, thirty miles in circumference, situated in the channel between Gilolo and the island of Morty; lat. 2° 30′ N., lon. 128° E.

RINGNODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirteen miles from the town of Amjerah. In 1820 it belonged to the Amjerah raja, and contained about 400 houses.

RIKHISUR.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, twenty-seven miles S.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 25′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

RISING.—A petty chiefship in Northern Hindostan, occupied by a branch of the Tanahung family, formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships, but at present subject to the Nepaulese government; lat 27° 46′ N., lon. 84° E., sixty miles west from Catmandoo. The image of Siva, in the temple named Makundeswar, attracts considerable assemblies of votaries at particular periods.

RISPE.—A village of Tibet, in the neighbourhood of which are many remarkable tumuli.—*(Lieut. Gerard, &c.)*

ROBAGIRI.—A Garrow village in

the pergunnah of Curryharry, about twenty-five miles inland from the Brahmaputra river, in an easterly direction. North of this place there is a mountain above 4,000 feet high. —(*D. Scott, &c.*)

RODAUK (*or Rootho*).—A town in Tibet, past which the Lahdack river flows, it having been traced to Draus, where it joins the Indus to this place. According to native information the road from hence to Lahdack is along the course of the Lahdack river, the journey occupying twenty-five days. The best shawl-wool is carried from hence to Lahdack on sheep, on account of the hilliness of the country.

A later account (about 1820) describes Rodauk as a populous place on the right bank of the Indus, containing above 300 families. A great quantity of salt is procured from this vicinity, the principal lakes yielding which are named Gok, Dungcham, Meedoom, Chaka, and Chakchak. Borax is found in Challe Chaka lake, near Rodauk, and in many other parts about Garoo. Mapang, and Leh, and all the rivers yield small grains of gold.—(*Elphinstone, Macartney, Public Journals, &c.*)

RODOAL.—A fortified town, and apparently thriving place, in the province of Delhi.

ROGONAUTPOOR (*Raghu n'atha pura*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of the Jungle Mahals, 130 miles N.W. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 32′ N., lon. 86° 44′ E. This place is remarkable for a very picturesque group of black, conical, granite rocks, the haunt of bears and leopards, and separated from the town during the rains by an extensive sheet of water. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ROHANSA.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles S.S.E. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 77° 41′ E.

ROHILCUND (*Rahilkhand*).—This territory, named in Sanscrit Kuttair, comprehended that part of Hindostan situated east of the Ganges between the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude, and from seventy-eight to eighty of east longitude; commencing in the vicinity of the Lolldong pass, at the foot of the hills through which the Ganges penetrates, it extended south-eastward to the town of Pillibeet. On the north it was bounded by the Sewalic and Kumaon hills, and on the south by the dominions of Oude. The principal rivers are the Ganges and Ramgunga; the latter traversing Rohilcund in nearly its whole extent, and uniting with the Ganges near Kanoje. The Goggra or Sarjew passes the north-east corner, and there are besides many rivers issuing from the northern mountains, and contributing to its fertility, being distributed by means of canals and reservoirs; water is also found by digging a few feet underground. Throughout its whole extent the surface is flat, being part of the great plain reaching from the northern hills to the sea, through which flow the Ganges and its innumerable tributary streams. Three rivers, having their sources among the hills, intersect Khyraghur—the Sarda, the Kumal, and the Courialleh, in all of which gold is found, mixed with sand, and is collected by a particular caste of people. The toddy (tari) and date palms are common here, while walnuts, strawberries, grapes, apples, and pears also thrive. The hot winds are not much felt, and, on the whole, this is one of the most favoured districts in Upper Hindostan. The bread at Bareily, the modern capital, is particularly good, and is said to be made from English wheat, originally brought from England by Mr. Hawkins, and now very commonly cultivated.

In the early periods of the Mogul empire Rohilcund was a very flourishing country, and of great political importance. It then contained the cities of Shahabad, Shahjehanabad, Bareily, Besowly, Budayoon, Owlah, Moradabad, and Sumbhul, which last communicated its name to a great part of the district. During the reign of the Patan dynasty in

Hindostan many princes of the royal family held their courts for a series of years in the city of Budayoon, where, as in many other parts of Rohilcund, are still to be seen the remains of magnificent edifices, palaces, gardens, mosques, and mausoleums.

The Rohillahs were originally a colony of the Yusefzei Afghan tribe, but their constitution had nothing of the apparent democracy of the Afghan hordes. The chiefs were lords of the soil, the other Afghans their tenants, and generally their soldiers. This people migrated from the province of Cabul in Afghanistan about the beginning of the eighteenth century, and then consisted of several independent tribes, who on pressing exigencies acted in concert, and were distinguished by the steady hatred that subsisted between them and the Maharattas. They are a courageous hardy race, and one of the few Mahomedan tribes who exercise the profession of agriculture as well as that of arms. They are also of a fairer complexion than almost any other race in Hindostan. Their high spirit and ferocious, uncultivated dispositions, render them difficult to govern or discipline, and, in common with the other Afghan races, they have the reputation of being crafty, treacherous, and sanguinary. In some European works the term Rohillah has been applied to the Afghans generally, but this is erroneous, as it is a Punjabee word, meaning a hilly country, and only known to the Afghans through the medium of books written in Hindostan.

About A.D. 1720 the Afghan chiefs Bisharut Khan and Daoud Khan, accompanied by a band of their needy and adventurous countrymen, came to Hindostan in quest of military service. They were entertained by Madhoo Sah, the zemindar of Serowly, who by plunder and predatory incursion maintained a large party of banditti. While plundering an adjacent village Daood Khan captured a youth of the Jaut tribe, whom he converted to the Mahomedan religion, named Ali Mahomed, and adopted to the prejudice of his own children. Daood Khan was succeeded as principal leader of the Rohillahs by Ali Mahomed, who, in consequence of the distracted state of Hindostan, soon established his power over the territory since named Rohilcund, although repeatedly brought to a low ebb by the Mogul armies from Delhi. Ali Mahomed died in 1748, and left six sons, but was succeeded in the chieftainship by Hafez Rehmut, whose authority, however, was constantly disputed by other leaders. In 1774 the combined forces of the Rohillahs were totally defeated by the British army at the battle of Cutterah, when Hafez Rehmet was slain, and with this event the Rohillah sway in Hindostan terminated, their country being transferred to the Oude government.

From this period may be dated the decline of the agriculture, commerce, and manufactures of Rohilcund (except in the jaghire of Rampoor, which remained under the management of Fyzoola Khan), and no where was the rapacity of the nabob of Oude's government exercised with such baneful success. Some little trade, however, continued to be carried on for eight or nine years after the conquest, chiefly under the protection and through the influence of the British troops stationed in the province. These having been withdrawn in 1782 and 1785, and the frontier left uncovered, a large body of Seiks crossed the Ganges at Tiggery ghaut, plundered Sumbhul and Chandowry, and some other towns, carrying off unmolested a considerable booty. This predatory incursion gave the *coup de grace* to the trade of Rohilcund, as thenceforward no man would venture his property in a country equally destitute of protection from arbitrary exactions within and plundering adventurers without.

The staple commercial articles in Rohilcund are cotton cloths and sugar, to which cotton as a raw material has been recently added. In remote times the cultivation of the sugar-cane was carried on to a great

extent, and a considerable amount of land revenue is still paid from its proceeds, the sugar of Rohilcund being reckoned of a superior quality. The natives of the hills bordering on the northern frontier, as also the inhabitants of Lahore, Cashmere, Cabul, and Candahar, take off considerable quantities. The articles of trade brought from the hills consist of borax, bees'-wax, musk, drugs of various kinds, cow-tails, copper, and iron; the returns are made in white cloths, tobacco, and sugar. Salt is mostly imported from the lake of Sambher in Ajmeer, the natives of Upper Hindostan being generally prejudiced against sea-salt.

The villages of Rohilcund are for the most part small; but various circumstances combine to render them more picturesque and pleasing than those of the more southern districts. Next to its numerous fertilizing streams, the leading features which distinguish the province are its frequent and graceful tufts of bamboos (a plant scarcely known in Oude or the Doab), and the magnificent groups of large trees, entirely free from underwood, which abound every where, and more especially in the neighbourhood of considerable hamlets. The tract bordering on the mountains for a breadth of from twenty to thirty miles is one vast forest, intermixed with long grass, the trees becoming more numerous and large, and the grass less luxuriant as the hills are approached. From Afzulghur to Khyraghur there are extensive forests, and a great number of labourers find employment in the wood trade. Bamboos, sissoo, saul, toon, and various other trees are in plenty; and from the bamboo is procured the banse lochun, which is much used by native doctors, and sometimes sells for nearly its weight in silver. Elephants are found mostly in the vicinity of Pillibeet, and a considerable number, but of inferior quality, are caught annually. The coss of Hindostan is reduced, in Rohilcund, to about one mile and a half British, and falls short of that measure in the tracts bordering on the hills, where the peasantry have no better estimate of space than what they call the "Gao coss," or the distance at which they can distinctly hear the low of a cow.

At present this valuable country is subdivided into the separate jurisdictions of Bareily, Moradabad, the residence of a joint magistrate subordinate to Bareily. From the trade carried on and the wealth accumulated in the small territory of Rampoor, prior to the death of Fyzoola Khan, some idea may be formed of the productive powers of Rohilcund; but a considerable proportion of the most industrious inhabitants had quitted it before it came under the British sway. For a long time also preceding that event a total stagnation of trade had prevailed, the trading capital having been dissipated or transferred to a more genial government. The Mahomedans of Rohilcund had long been accustomed to an idle and licentious military life, yet the example of the Rampoor jaghire proved that the habits of idleness prevailing among this class of people is not insurmountable, and that they may be brought to employ themselves both in manufactures and in the pursuits of agriculture.—(*Sir Henry Wellesley, C. Lloyd, Bishop Heber, Fullarton, Franklin, &c.*)

Rohur.—A seaport in the province of Cutch, about twelve miles E. by S. from the town of Anjar. The distance from Womania, on the opposite coast of the Gujerat peninsula, is thirty miles, and the passage is generally performed in two tides. The depth of water is seldom more than four feet, the vessels are consequently small; but the port of Rohur, on the west side, is capable of receiving vessels of 200 candies. The want of fresh water for more than two miles from hence will always tend greatly to check its prosperity. Many attempts have been made to secure a supply; but they have always failed, on account of the saline impregnation of the soil. In 1817 an endeavour

to remedy this deficiency was made by the Bombay government's ordering the construction of a tank, capable of holding a twelve-month's supply.—(*Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Rol.—A village and pergunnah in Chuara, one of the larger divisions of Bussaher, in Northern Hindostan. It stands 9,350 feet above the level of the sea, and is the highest inhabited land in this quarter without the Himalaya.

Rolpah.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to Nepaul, forty-five miles S.E. from Jemlah; lat 28° 45′ N., lon. 81° 47′ E.

Roma Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about forty miles in circumference; lat. 7° 35′ N., lon. 127° 20′ E. The chiefs of Roma are subject to the authority of the Dutch resident at Coopang, on the island of Timor. The principal commodities procurable here are wax, sandal-wood, and edible birds'-nests. Until prohibited by the British government slaves were also exported.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Rooderpoor (*Rudrapura*).—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, situated on the south side of the Goula nullah, which separates it from the small town of Rampoor near the skirts of the great forest under the northern hills, and forty-one miles N. from the city of Bareily: lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Roonay.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, about four miles and a half from Deoghur, and 112 W. by N. from Moorshedabad.

Roond.—A small town in the province of Gujerat, four miles from Chandode, situated on the east bank of the Nerbudda river, which is here high and steep, and opposite to a small island. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Roonoo.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-eight miles west from Etaweh; lat. 26° 16′ N, lon. 79° 20′ E.

Ropoor.—A town in the Delhi province, twenty-six miles N. by E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 55′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E.

Rotuk.—A town in the province of Delhi, forty-seven miles west from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 40′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E. This was once a considerable place, but is now mostly in ruins. On the east is a large brick fort, but the walls so feeble, that they could not sustain the fire of a six-pounder.

Rotti Isle.—An island in the Indian Ocean, situated at the south-western extremity of Timor; lat. 10° 50′ N., lon. 123° 50′ E. It is the largest under the Dutch residency at Coupang, being about sixty miles long by thirty-eight broad.

The surface of Rotti consists of a succession of low hills and narrow vallies, the soil stony, yet productive; the rivers small, and few in number, and the supply of water generally scanty. Rice in small quantities, with Indian corn, millet, and cachang, are the principal articles of agricultural produce; but in dry seasons the natives depend on the sugar of the lentar palm. A little cotton is raised; but a great proportion of what is used comes from Bontan. Money is unknown, trade being carried on by barter. Palm sugar is exchanged with the Bontan prows for cotton; horns and buffaloes with both the whalers and other ships for muskets and ammunition; bees'-wax with the Dutch for Indian, Chinese, and European articles. The teak-tree is not a native of this island, but woods adapted for prow-building abound. The animals are the same as on Timor. The houses of the natives are built on strong posts, raised several feet above the ground, and under them they bury their dead. Some of the chiefs or rajas profess Christianity, but the majority are pagans.

In 1820 this island consisted of eighteen communities, each under a

distinct raja, which combined could, it is said, bring 10,000 men into the field; and occasionally the Rotti chiefs assist the Dutch (whose supremacy they acknowledge) in their wars with the Timorese. The inhabitants are below middle stature, darker than the natives of Celebes, and noted for their long lank hair, a marked distinction from the Papuan race. Formerly many hundred slaves were annually exported from Rotti to Batavia, Amboyna, and other Dutch colonies; but latterly this trafic has declined, and along with it the wars instigated to procure the supply. A Dutch interpreter is usually stationed on this island, to whom the native rajas, in common times, yield obedience.—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

Rotas (*Rahatas*).—An extensive but strong fort in the province of Lahore, 107 miles N.N.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 33° N., lon. 73° 20′ E. It stands on a low hill, and belongs to the Seiks.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Roween (*Rowahin*).—This is the upper division of Gurwal in Northern Hindostan, and chiefly subject to the Gurwal raja. After the conclusion of the campaign against the Gorkhas, in 1816, the disposal of this tract was reserved for future consideration, which ultimately terminated in a resolution to restore it to the raja of Gurwal or Serinagur. Independent of the general aversion felt by the British government to any increase of territory among the hills, it appeared that with reference to the large deductions to be made from the ancient territory of the Gurwal principality, it would not be expedient to deprive it of the Roween district.

This country is wholly composed of granite mountains, but no volcanoes have ever been seen or heard of, nor any shells or animal remains found. The magnetic deviation is easterly, and exceedingly small, not averaging more than one degree. The diurnal changes of the barometer are just perceptible, the mercury always falling a little before noon. In June the climate about Reital is not unpleasant; nor is the price of grain, which is cut in that month, very high, although certainly not abundant. The exports from Roween to Bhote and Tibet are rice, mandwa, and papra (coarse grains), tobacco, and tamashas; the imports from them being salt, thick woollen cloth, and wool. The people of Roween are an ill-looking race both men and women, and extremely dirty in their persons. The women have not here, as more to the westward, a plurality of husbands. The inhabitants complain of being much infested by banditti from the west; but they themselves appear to merit a similar appellation, as they plunder their more eastern neighbours about Kedarnath. Their weapons are merely bows and arrows.—(*Captain Hodgson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Rowzah.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the narrow tabular summit of a hill-pass 450 feet high, leading from Dowletabad to Elora, and about six miles and a half distant from the town of Dowletabad, with which it communicates by a well-paved causeway twenty feet wide. The caves of Elora are on the eastern front of the same ridge. Rowzah is still protected by a fine wall of masonry, and its interior presents extensive remains of stone buildings, but it is much gone to decay. The spot is of great natural beauty, and has been selected as a site for the shrines of several Mahomedan saints of high local celebrity, one of which still possesses some costly ornaments, and they are all still in good preservation. Close to that of Seid Zain ul Abdeen, and within the same enclosure, the remains of the great Aurengzebe are deposited in a plain marble tomb, covered with a sort of trellised penthouse of wood, very miserable and decayed, and in the opposite angle of the area is the mausoleum of one of the emperor's sons. The air here

is very pure, and has a most salutary effect on convalescents, who travel here from Bombay to enjoy its influence; yet there is no difference between the temperatures of Rowzah and Aurungabad, which lies in a hollow, and is very unhealthy. The constant fresh breeze, the beauty of the scenery, and the sacredness of the neighbouring caves of Elora, all assist in dissipating the oppression of the patient's mind, and renovating his bodily energies.—(*Fullarton, Medical Transactions, &c.*)

Roy Bareilly.—A town in the province of Oude, situated on the north side of the Sye river, forty-six miles S.S.E. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 14′ N., lon. 81° 6′ E.

Ruanelli.—A valley in the island of Ceylon, twenty-six miles E.N.E. from Columbo, named by the Candians, to whom it formerly belonged, the valley of precious stones, and is probably the one alluded to by Sinbad the Sailor. Up to this place the river is navigable for boats, but from hence to Candy it is shallow and rocky. From hence to Columbo the distance by water is sixty miles; yet so rapid is the current, that the passage down is made in about eight hours, while in returning the same number of days are occupied. Since the British conquest, and more especially since 1815, great improvements have been effected at Ruanelli; bridges have been constructed on the road from Columbo and the vicinity, to a certain distance, cleared of jungle; comfortable habitations and convenient store-houses have been erected at the confluence of the Calani Gunga and another stream; and in 1819 a fort was nearly completed, and a bazar, containing from 200 to 300 families, established.

Rubcovee.—A small walled town in the province of Bejapoor, sixty-two miles travelling distance N.E. from Belgaum, and two miles S.W. of the Krishna. In 1820 it belonged to Chintamun Row, the Putwurdun of Sanglee, and carried on a considerable manufacture of cotton thread. Up to the above date it was not laid down in any map, the best of which were at that date very erroneous in the projection of this quarter of Hindostan, and more especially of the line of the Krishna.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Rudowra.—A town in the province of Delhi, eleven miles W. by N. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 2′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E.

Rudra Himalaya.—Part of a ridge of mountains in Northern Hindostan, which separates the Jahnevi and Ganges; lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 79° 6′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea, 22,390 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Rudrapoor.—A town in the province of Delhi, forty miles north of Bareily; lat. 28° 58′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E. The insalubrity of this vicinity has greatly increased within the last fifteen years. This was formerly a large and wealthy town, inhabited all the year through without danger or disease, but the soldiers and servants now (1824) die so fast, that it is scarcely possible to support the establishment of the police thana. This unfavourable change is attributed by the natives to the decay of the population, which certainly seems a preservative; possibly from the firres, breath, or society of men, which appear to neutralize the malaria.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Rudra Prayaga.—A Hindoo place of pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, where the Alacananda joins the Caligunga, a large stream that rises in the mountains of Kedar, and in the Shastras is named the Mandakini. The confluence of these two rivers at this place is one of the five principal prayagas, or holy junctions, mentioned in the sacred books of the Hindoos. Lat. 30° 18′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.; nineteen miles N.E. from Serinagur.

Ruengurra.—A town in the pro-

vince of Allahabad, seventy-five miles S. by W. from Callinjer; lat. 24° 2' N., lon. 80° 25' E.

RUGOLI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles S.S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 45' N., lon. 79° 29' E.

RUIS ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated off the north-western extremity of Wageeoo, and surrounded by a multitude of smaller islands, with very deep waters between them; lat. 0° N., lon. 129° 55' E.

RUMBAH.—A village in the Northern Circars, district of Ganjam, situated at the southern extremity of the Chilka lake, on a small bay formed by the projecting eminence, *named the sugar-loaf hill on the right*, with picturesque wooded mountains on all sides, and the expanse of the lake in front as far as Deer island. On the height above is a pleasant European villa.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RUMBO.—A petty state in the interior of the Malay peninsula, unconnected with the sea, its inhabitants being wholly agricultural. It lies between Pahang and Malacca to the east of the latter. The Rumbo people, who are poor and inoffensive, are said to be a more recent emigration from the parent stock in Sumatra than any other Malays in the peninsula. The chief of Rumbo is said still to acknowledge himself tributary to the Menancabow sultan, from whom he receives his investiture, and the peculiar dialect of the principality is by its neighbours called the Menancabow.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Raffles, &c.*)

RUMPAH.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, situated towards the western frontier. The country of Rumpah forms a part of the British territory; but whether from its mountainous and unhealthy situation, or its unprofitable nature, the ancestors of the present raja have been in possession of Rumpah and villages adjacent, without rendering an account to any superior for many years. During the life of Pundoo Dorah it was an asylum for every description of vagrant, besides which the chiefs have always practised the custom of levying duties on goods transported by the river Godavery. For those and other crimes they had been expelled; but in 1815 Ram Booputty (Bhupati), the nominal talookdar of Rumpah, having seized and put to death the above-named notorious freebooter, the Madras presidency, as a recompense for this exploit, ordered the estate to be restored, on condition that he would maintain such a police as would prevent its becoming in future a resort of plunderers, and that he would also abstain from levying any transit duties on the Godavery.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

RUNALLAH (*ranalaya, the place of battle*).—A town in the province of Candeish, eighty-two miles east from Surat; lat. 21° 18' N., lon. 74° 27' E.

RUNGAGORA.—A town in Assam, the capital of a tribe of Hindoos, worshippers of Vishnu, whose chief is called Burseapati, and resides at this place; lat. 27° 20' N., lon. 95° E., a point nearly central. He maintained his independence against the Burmese and Singhphos, and adhered to the British interests during the Burmese war of 1824.

RUNGAPOOR (*Rangapura*).—A town in the province of Hyderabad, twenty miles north from Warangol; lat. 18° 11' N., lon. 79° 37' E.

RUNGARA.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty-eight miles north from Goa; lat. 16° 12' N., lon. 74° 8' E.

RUNGPOOR (*Rangapura*).—A district in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the north-eastern extremity, and situated principally between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. To the north it has Bootan; on the south the district of Mymunsingh and the Garrow mountains; to the

east Assam and the *Garrows*; and on the west Dinagepoor. Its extreme length, from the confines of Assam to the borders of Morung, is 185 miles, and its greatest breadth, which is from the limits of Rajshahy to the frontiers of Bootan, 116 miles. In 1809, according to Dr. Francis Buchanan, it contained 7,400 square miles.

The shape of this district is so irregular as to bid defiance to description, but the main feature of its eccentricity is the deep sweep that the Cooch Bahar principality takes between its north-western and south-eastern extremes, which can scarcely be exceeded in perplexity. The course of the Caratoya was made the general line of boundary between Rungpoor and Dinagepoor, and probably the channel then followed by the river was as good a common boundary as could have been selected; but the limits of the two districts were far from being clearly defined by this arrangement, for the Caratoya is liable to change according to the channel by which the main rush of the Teesta (which notwithstanding its name, 'the still,' is never at rest) enters. In the present instance its course has varied very considerably since it was adopted for the common boundary, and the frontier villages have in consequence become intermixed. Besides these Rungpoor labours under other local disadvantages in the vast extent of its frontier, exposed to no less than five independent states, Nepaul, Bootan, Cooch Bahar, Assam, and the Garrows, from which it is separated, not by large rivers, lofty mountains, or any other natural landmarks, but by boundaries, for the most part merely imaginary, and, as might be expected from such ill-defined limits, the possession of the frontier tracts is every where contested.

Since the survey of Major Rennell the Rungpoor rivers have undergone such changes, that there is great difficulty in tracing them. Their banks are in general low, and the inundation so far from raising the ground by a deposition of sediment, seems gradually to be sinking the rivers deeper and deeper below the level of the plains. The principal rivers are the Brahmaputra, Teesta, Mahananda, Caratoya, Manas, and Chonkosh.

In Rungpoor there are several jeels, and in the north-eastern extremity, five miles from Jughigopa, a beautiful cluster of lakes, which in the wet season are overwhelmed by the Brahmaputra. The heats of the spring are not so scorching and parching as towards the western quarter of the Bengal province, the hot winds being rarely experienced for more than eight or ten days to the west, and in the east are scarcely known. The soil differs considerably from that of Dinagepoor, to which it is generally inferior. Towards the east there is much free red soil called *ranga mati*, which produces stately forests, much encumbered with enormous climbing plants, and by an undergrowth of weeds. Tanks are rare, the district not containing one of any considerable magnitude. To the east of the rivers Brahmaputra and Chonkosh the country is hilly, the ranges of hills seldom exceeding eight miles in length, by two in breath, nor (excluding the Garrow mountains) more than 1,200 feet in height. These ranges form no continued chain, being every where surrounded by low level lands, and during the rainy season almost insulated. Shells in large quantities are burned into lime, as well for the use of the indigo factories as for chewing with betel.

Bamboos are in such plenty that 100 are sold for a rupee, and at Goalpara, although so remote from the sea-coast (250 miles), the coconut palms not only ripen their fruit, but yield it in abundance. Wheat is a considerable crop, but except at the capital, in some of the principal families, the people not having the art of converting it into flour, boil it like rice. Barley is little cultivated, and maize almost unknown. The quantity of cotton cultivated is insignificant, nor is the sugar-cane

raised in any considerable quantity. Ginger has of late years been much grown, and has proved a profitable article to the peasantry in consequence of the increased demand for the Calcutta market. The grand staple of the district is tobacco, and the betel-leaf required for internal consumption is enormous. The poppy was formerly cultivated on government account, and the illicit culture through the connivance of the native officers still continues. The indigo weed is also raised, but on account of the great moisture of country it is difficult to preserve the seed in a good vegetating condition. Three species of profitable insects are reared by the farmers; the mulberry and resinous silk-worms, and the lack insect. All the implements necessary for a farm of one plough may be purchased for 7s.: the cost of a sugar-mill is 12s. 4d., and the total expense of working it about three guineas. Elephants are numerous throughout the three eastern divisions, and wherever there are extensive forests and thickets the rhinoceros is not uncommon, and is quite harmless, injuring neither persons nor crops. The other remarkable animals are apes, monkeys, black bears, and huge tigers.

It is only during the dry season that fish are plenty in the market, for during the floods they are scarce, and the middling ranks are ill supplied. The lower classes are not able to purchase at any season, but it is during the floods that they procure their principal supply. At that season every rice field swarms with small miserable fish, which are caught in baskets, and what is not immediately used is preserved by the following process. The natives remove the head, fins, entrails, and back-bone, dry the remainder by exposure on mats to the hot rays of the sun, after which they beat them up with some herbs, a little tumeric, and some potash. The mass is then formed into balls, which are dried in the sun, and will keep until next season. These fish are observed to abound in the fields so early as the end of June, which tends to confirm the opinion of their proceeding from eggs, which were left dry the preceding season, and hatched by the first rains.

In this district there is a fine road, attributed to Nilambor Raja. It passes from Komotapoor to Ghoraghaut, sends off several branches, and proceeds through several divisions of the district. Where the country is too low it is raised to a considerable height, and is a broad, grand work; but as it consists entirely of earth, without any hard materials, it would not long resist the action of many wheeled carriages: to this cause of destruction, however, it has never been exposed. In this district there are the ruins of several ancient cities, such as Komotapoor and the city of Prithi Raj, in the division of Sanyasicotta, the latter of which is less known. It consists of four concentric enclosures, which appear to have been all fortified. The inner is a parallelogram, 690 yards from north to south, by half as much from east to west; the length of the outer fort is no less than six miles from north to south. About two miles from the great bend of the Teesta, a little below Dimla, are the remains of a fortified city, said to have been built by Dharma Pal. The ruins of the fortifications are still extant, but their extent is not great.

The great farmers in Rungpoor are mostly Brahmins, Kayasthas, and Mahomedans of some rank; and the leases may be said to be in perpetuity, or perhaps rather that the occupants of the soil are the real proprietors, bound to pay a certain tax to government through the zemindar. In 1809 the landlords appeared to have no confidence in the promises of government, and considered the perpetual settlement of the land revenue as of no value, for they could not believe it possible that the supreme authority should know of their receiving large sums of money, without immediately demanding a share. The

manners of this class are in general very indifferent. Few, especially of the older families, ever visit each other, but live surrounded with dependents and flatterers, especially mendicant vagrants, who entertain them with marvellous stories. A great proportion of these miscreants is composed of men who pretend to have devoted their lives to religion, poverty, and abstinence. Some families pretend to be of divine origin; others are descended from princes who have governed the country; but a great majority of those who possess the most valuable lands are new men, who have purchased their estates at auction, among which number in 1809 were the descendants of Canta Baboo, Mr. Hastings' dewan. The estates of the Boruya contain 470 square miles, yet pay a land assessment of only 3,000 rupees per annum.

A few Brahmins here have acquired sufficient skill in astronomy to construct an almanac, and five or six pundits instruct youth in a science named agom, or magic, comprehending astrology and chiromancy, a study which at one time is said to have greatly flourished in Camroop. The generality are totally ignorant of any science, and to these the lower classes are abandoned, while the higher receive the decrees of fate from the Brahmins. Chiromancy is reckoned a higher science than the calculation of nativities, and is monopolized by the sacred order. The Mahomedans having no wise men of their own, consult those of the Hindoos.

The era followed in this district on all solemn occasions is that of Sacaditya, or Saca, of which the first year corresponds with part of our years A.D. 77 and 78. This appears to be the same era as what in the south of India is named Salivahana, but the natives here differ very much from those of the south concerning the great personages who distinguished those remote times. According to the learned Brahmins of Rungpoor, the era of Salivahana is called Sumbut, and commences 134 years before that of Saca, so that it evidently is the same with what in the south is called the era of Vicrama, who according to tradition there governed 144 years, and was destroyed by Salivahana. In this district, on the contrary, it is alleged that the era of Salivahana or Sumbut continued 134 years, and was then supplanted by that named after a prince called Sacaditya, who was killed by Vicrama. As yet, time in this district is measured by clepsydras or water-clocks.

All ranks in this district spin cotton thread, but a considerable proportion of the raw material is imported from the west of India by the way of Bogwangola and Moorshedabad. The Company purchase most of the best sugar, the remainder is consumed on the spot. The natives have commenced the manufacture of sugar after the European fashion, and in 1809 had sixteen factories. The grain goes mostly to Serajegunge and Narraingunge, to which places salt is also sent; opium is a contraband trade. The lac comes from Assam, and wax mostly from the Nepaulese territories and Assam. A considerable quantity of salt, after being miserably adulterated, is exported to Assam, Bootan, and the Garrow country. The raw silk is mostly exported by the Company. English woollens are imported chiefly for the Bootan market, but the demand is very inconsiderable; a little is also sent to Assam. The common currency is the Kuldar rupee of Calcutta, and cowries, there being very little gold coin and no copper. In the eastern divisions napkins worth about threepence, and portions of salt, are also used for the purposes of exchange. There are here many old roads attributed to Nilambar Raja, now become ruinous, and destitute of bridges, which, even of brick, cannot in this climate be expected to last more than twenty years.

The total population of the Rungpoor district in 1809, after a laborious investigation, was estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan as follows:

Number of Mahomedans...	1,536,000
Ditto of Hindoos	1,194,350
Ditto of Asurics or infidels	4,650
Total ...	2,735,000

And in the following proportions, *viz.*

Persons who do not work	343,000
Artificers......................	326,000
Cultivators	2,066,000
Total ...	2,735,000

Including the whole district, the above estimate will give 370 to the square mile; but if it be divided into two portions, separated by the Chonkosh and Brahmaputra rivers, the eastern division will contain at the rate of nearly sixty persons to the square mile, while the western in the same extent will contain 570. The grand check to population in this district is disease, the natives being exceedingly unhealthy, and the children feeble, so that a large proportion of the infants die, even of those not in a state of indigence; and although for almost fifty years food has never been so scarce as to approach to a famine, a large extent of excellent land still remains unoccupied. The forest of Parbut Joyaur contains 360 square miles, yet this large space is occupied by only 500 persons, and only 500 rupees of revenue is received from the proprietor. Among the domestics are both male and female slaves, especially towards Assam, and every where along the northern frontier. The people of Assam sell many slaves, and those of Cooch Bahar are not unwilling to carry on the same trade. Rungpoor being a section of Camroop (the Hindoo region of sensual love), public prostitution is so common, that in 1809 twelve hundred houses were occupied by females of that profession, which has assumed the organization of a regular society, with a priesthood adapted to their manner of life. In 295 of these houses, there were found to be 460 females, between the ages of twelve and twenty-five years; 218 advanced in life, who acted as servants and superintendants; and the community also contained thirty-nine old men, thirty-five youths, and fourteen boys, all born of the sisterhood. These prostitutes, although mostly born of Mahomedan parents, affect Hindoo manners, on which account they abstain from all impure food, and before the age of puberty undergo the ceremony of marriage with a plantain tree.

In this district, in 1809 there were seventy-eight sets of female dancers and singers, all prostitutes. Here they are called Nutti, and belong to the same kind of institution as the common prostitutes, and have the same religious guides. All the girls are purchased when children; the handsomest and smartest is generally the head of the set, which usually consists of two or three girls and four or five men, who are mostly born in the caste. There are no dancing and singing boys except such as are attached to the sets, which perform in honour of the gods and saints, but of these there is a considerable variety and incredible number. The number employed to make a noise on public occasions is stated in statistical tables of the Rungpoor district at 2,664.

In Rungpoor it is considered highly improper to bestow any education on women, and no man would marry a girl who was known to be capable of reading; but as girls of rank are usually married about eight years of age, and continue to live with their families for four or five years afterwards, the husbands are sometimes deceived, and find after marriage on receiving their wives, that they have learned the dreadful science, which is supposed to be most inauspicious to their spouses. Although this female erudition scarcely ever proceeds further than being able to indite a letter and to examine an account, yet it has proved the salvation of many families, and rescued them from impending destruction. The women of rank here live much less dissipated lives than the men, retain

their faculties more entire, and are generally much better fitted for the management of their estates, on which account they are considered intolerable nuisances by the harpies who prey on their husbands and plunder their estates. Education generally is in a very low state in this district, on which account almost every person employed in any high department of the revenue or police is a stranger. Few indeed born in the district are qualified even for the occupation of a common clerk or writer. Some of the strangers bring their families to reside, but by far the greater number leave their families in their native province, and consider themselves as undergoing a species of banishment.

The small farmers here are the most timid creatures imaginable, being totally illiterate, and afraid to speak even to a common village clerk. Five or six families commonly unite under a chief man, who settles the whole of their transactions with their landlord, and submit entirely to his guidance. These poor farmers are called Chenggons, and go nearly naked. The head man seldom does any work, and on all occasions is first helped to betel and tobacco. When any accident happens to this man, the whole community disperses, in order to find out some other person that will take them into his herd. Few even of these head-men can find courage to speak to his landlord, and still less to the European officers of government, and many of the landlords cannot muster sufficient intrepidity to face so high a presence.

In this district the Bedé are a tribe of the utmost impurity; neither is it certain to what country they belong. These Bedés live by gelding animals, making drums, catching snakes, performing juggling tricks, and by begging, enlivened by theft. Of this miserable race there are reckoned to be 460 families, who eat beef, carrion, pork, and all abominable things. Their marriages are accompanied by a feast, but no person officiates as priest. They are allowed one wife, whom they never divorce. No person is expelled from the caste, every delinquency being expiated by an entertainment. The chief object of their worship is a male deity named Masan, to whom the blood of sacrifices is grateful. As this deity seems peculiar to Camroop, it might be inferred that the Bedé are an aboriginal tribe, but they are known to be spread over many parts of Bengal.

At the date above-mentioned Dr. Francis Buchanan estimated the Mahomedans in the proportion of ten to nine Hindoos, and the faith of the former, owing to the number of converts expelled from the original castes, appeared to be daily gaining ground. The two religions, however, are on the most friendly terms, and mutually apply to the deities or saints of the other, when they imagine that application to their own will prove ineffectual. A great majority of the inhabitants do not appear to be intruders, but descendants from the original natives. The whole number of Brahmins in 1809 was estimated at about 6,000 families, or one-forty-third of the whole Hindoo population. The number of people upon whom no sort of impression has been made by the Brahmins is very inconsiderable, and are included under the general name of Asuric, strictly signifying persons who have no god; that is to say, who worship God in a manner different from the Hindoos and Mahomedans. The most prevalent sect among the Brahmins, is that of the Sactu, the followers of which rejecting the Puranas, adopt as their chief guides the books called Tantras, which it is understood were composed by the god Siva for the instruction of his wife Parvati.

Under the Mogul government, Rungpoor was a military frontier station towards the Morung and Cooch Bahar, and was partially wrested from the raja of the latter principality during the reign of Shah Jehan, when it was formed into a circar; but it was completely conquered by the generals of Aurengzebe in 1660-1, when it received the name of Fakercoondy. It devolved to the British

government along with the rest of the province in 1765, since which its condition has been gradually improving. In 1814 the annual revenues of Rungpoor amounted to 10,62,115 rupees; Cooch Bahar 62,722 rupees. In 1801 the lands paying revenue to government were considered by the collector as better cultivated than those that were rent-free. At present the principal towns are Rungpoor, Mungulhaut, Chilmary and Goalpara, where, as in the district generally, the most opulent merchants and landholders have no better habitations than the huts constructed of straw mats, precisely of the same form and appearance as those of the lowest peasantry, but in greater number and larger dimensions.

The prevalence of gang robbery in 1813 in the police division of Boda, was attributed by the superintendant of the police to the agency of a body of Keechuks (a sort of gypsey wanderers, natives of Bootan), who had been sent from Nuddea to Rungpoor, to be marched over the frontier to their own country. These banditti were first apprehended in the Sunderbunds, where they were found possessed of a large quantity of property, and of many implements of a suspicious description. The total number, comprehending men, women and children, amounted to between two and three hundred persons, without any visible mode of obtaining an honest livelihood; and as they had been wandering for many months through the British provinces, it was deemed eligible, with a view to the security of the community, to have them conducted to their own reputed country: they were in consequence sent into Bootan, from whence they were supposed to have made incursions into Rungpoor, where having committed depredations, they retreated with their plunder beyond the frontier; but in 1813 the magistrate succeeded in capturing a number of them. In 1814 this functionary expressed his opinion, that the murders committed on the other frontier by the Garrows, were solely occasioned by their desire to obtain human skulls; but further investigation proved that this was not the only cause of these enormities, which had commenced immediately after the sale of the Currybarry pergunnah in 1809, subsequent to which the ejected proprietor had resided among the Garrow mountains.—(*F. Buchanan, Sisson, J. Grant, Fullarton, &c.*)

RUNGPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, of which it is the capital; lat. 25° 43′ N., lon. 89° 22′ E. It may be considered as composed of four distinct villages, much scattered and separated even from each other; it being only near the police office where there is any appearance of a town. In 1809 the dwelling houses were said to be 3,000; the number of distinct roofs or buildings 10,000, and the population from 15,000 to 20,000.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RUNGPOOR (*Rangapura*).—A town in the kingdom of Assam, of which it is said (for a time) to have been the capital, situated on the Dikho river, which flows into the south side of the Brahmaputra; lat. 26° 55′ N., lon. 94° 30′ E. In 1808 the royal palace (according to native accounts) was surrounded by a wall of brick three cubits thick, and three and a half cubits high. The house in which the throne stood was thatched, and supported by saul beams, with sides constructed of bamboo mats. In the same enclosure was a building of brick in which the raja sat to view public exhibitions. There was also a small temple entirely composed of copper, in which it is supposed the god Chung was kept, but the whole worship of this deity is still involved in mystery.

When captured by the British in 1825 it was found to be a place of great extent, surrounded by a ditch, deep swamps, and jungle. On the walls and gates there were 200 pieces of artillery of various sizes, and it contained several mosques and other religious buildings. Owing to adverse circumstances a boat from Dacca ascending the Brahmaputra against the

current, requires fully as great a length of time to reach Rungpoor as a ship does to make the voyage from Europe to Bengal. — (*F. Buchanan, Public Journals, &c.*)

RUNJENGAUM.—A walled village in the province of Aurungabad, district of Ahmednuggur, about eighteen miles S.W. from the city of Ahmednuggur. There is here an excellent bungalow for the accommodation of travellers between Seroor and the last-mentioned station.

THE RUNN (*from erun, a morass, backwater, or waste, also a field of battle*).—An extensive salt morass which bounds the western frontier of the Gujerat province, communicates with the gulf of Cutch, and sweeps round the northern side of that province, which during the rains it insulates, and at other times exhibits a great variety of appearances. In some parts it is a widely expanded sheet of shallow water, only a few inches deep, in others an impassable salt swamp, elsewhere a dry unproductive bank of sand, in some places covered for miles with a salt incrustation, and in others affording pasturage and susceptible of cultivation; but every where strongly impregnated with saline particles adverse to vegetation. The total superfices of this immense morass may be estimated at 8,000 square miles, and the gulf of Cutch, which it joins, is in many parts so shallow as more to resemble a marshy fen than an arm of the sea. In its greatest extent the Runn is connected with the gulf of Cutch on the west, and that of Cambay on the east, which being united during the rainy monsoon, transform the Gujerat peninsula for a time to an island.

The Runn or Bunnee, from west to east, stretches from Luckput Bunder to the frontiers of Gujerat, and varies in its breadth from five to eighty miles across, but from the commencement to the breaking up of the rains is nearly impassable even for horsemen. It is said to be formed by the overflow of the Puddar river and the gulf of Cutch during the monsoon; but in December between Mallia and Anjar it is quite dry, and in most parts hard. Seen from the Cattywar coast, the Runn presents a singularly wild appearance, bounded in the extreme horizon by the hills of Wagur, having the appearance of an arm of the sea, from which, owing to some convulsion, the ocean had receded, or the dry bed of an immense river. It is throughout a dead flat, and in most parts, more especially near Mallia, totally devoid of verdure and vegetation. In this quarter, as far as the eye can reach, a mixture of earthy sand, covered with a thin lamina of earthy mud, presents a dreary view. In different places small insulated quicksands are seen, having in the middle a saline streak and incrustation of about 100 yards in extent, and for a considerable distance on both sides, the surface is strewed with thousands of prawns, mullets, and other fish. Tracts of large birds are also seen, and on the Cutch side apes and porcupines.

On approaching the opposite side, the salt incrustation is so thick as to have the appearance of snow; in other quarters it is said to extend the whole way across at particular seasons, presenting many singular optical deceptions, from the reflection and refraction of the sun's rays. The little saline shrubs and bushes are magnified to the size of lofty forest trees, waving, separating, and uniting again; armies seem to march over the flat; castles and fortifications rise, disappear, and reappear in the salt-bed of the morass. Under the crust the ground is in some parts soft and moist, in others dry and firm. The distance across the Runn, where the detachment marched in 1818, was exactly ten miles and a quarter from shore to shore; the dragoons reached the opposite bank in two hours and three quarters, and the European infantry in three hours and a half; the nullahs or water-courses leading into the Runn have quicksands in their beds, which are also impregnated with salt, so that fresh water cannot be had on the Cutch

side except at a considerable distance from the bank. The Runn was crossed on the north by the embassy returning from Sinde in 1809, where its extreme width was probably about sixty miles, but the tract was in few parts an absolute morass; on the contrary, many parts exhibited both pasturage and a scanty cultivation; but every thing in this quarter has a tendency to the saline.

The banks of the Runn are much frequented by that curious animal the wild ass, which is seen in herds of sixty and seventy at a time. This ass is larger than the tame one, the body of an ash colour, changing to a dirty white under the belly, and is, upon the whole, a larger and stronger animal than when domesticated. It is extremely vigilant and difficult to catch. It feeds on the Runn banks, and on the salt islands in its centre, where it browses on the stunted and brackish vegetation of the desert. In November and December it advances into the country, and ravages the grain fields. This animal has been sometimes caught in pits, but has always proved fierce and untameable, biting and kicking in the most ferocious manner, accompanied by an angry snorting, which appears to be its only voice. Their flesh is esteemed good eating by the natives, who lie in wait for them at their drinking places.

The whole of the extensive space occupied by this immense morass appears at some remote period to have been covered with the waters of the ocean, which have since subsided, and are still insensibly draining off; yet by the natives it is said to be annually and visibly increasing on the west side, where it joins the gulf. According to a tradition still current, the voice of a man could at one time be heard from Cutch to Cattywar; and opposite to Joroia, now a seaport, there was formerly a footpath at low water; but the truth of this cannot be substantiated by any records now extant. During the great earthquake of 1819, the Runn was so much affected by an increase of water, that the province of Cutch became for a time again almost insulated, which from stone anchors there found appears to have been its original condition.

The British government have a share in the customs levied on the salt manufactured in the Runn, and collected at Junjoowara and Patree. The saltpans are constructed upwards of a mile in the Runn, and the workmen having for many years been exposed to the attacks of the Kosahs, were seldom (until 1820) able to produce a quantity sufficient to meet the demand. The dessye of Patree and thakoor of Junjoowara have also shares in these customs.—(*Public Journals, Col. Walker, Macmurdo, J. A. Dunlop, &c.*)

RUNNODE.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventy-five miles north from Seronge; lat. 25° 0′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.

RUPEA.—A town in the province of Delhi, belonging to the protected Seiks; lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 76° 31′ E. The Sutuleje river here finally quits the mountains and enters the plains of Hindostan.

RUPNAGUR (*Rupa Nagara*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fourteen miles north from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 41′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E.

RUSSAULGHUR.—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, thirty-four miles S.E. from Fort Victoria; lat. 17° 45′ N., lon. 73° 40′ E.

RUTLAM.—A large and well-built town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820, contained about 2,000 houses; lat. 23° 19′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 1,5[illegible] feet. This place is the head of several pergunnahs belonging to the raja of Rutlam, which at the date above-mentioned yielded a revenue of 4,03,200 rupees, out of which a tribute of 84,000 rupees was paid to Sindia. In 1824 the revenues were expected to reach to five lacks and a half. Eight Rajpoot dependents hold

jaghires, of from 2,000 to 12,000 rupees annually, on feudal tenures; and the troops furnished by them compose the raja's military strength. Rutlam was either founded or greatly increased during the reign of Shah Jehan, when Ruttun Singh, a Rahtore Rajpoot, received it as a reward for military service.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

RUTNAGHERRY (*ratna ghiri, the diamond mountain*).—A fortress in the province of Bajapoor, situated on a neck of land which shelters a small bay from the S.W. monsoon, 130 miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17° 2′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E. Hemp and coffee, both of good qualities, are raised in the neighbourhood.

RUTTENGHERRY (*Ratna ghiri*).—A town in the Mysore province, fifty-four miles S.E. from Chitteldroog; lat. 13° 50′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E.

RUTTUNGUR (*Ratnaghar*). — A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-five miles E. by S. from the city of Odeypoor; lat. 24° 51′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E.

RUTTUNPOOR (*ratna pura, the gem city*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, division of Choteesghur, of which it is the capital; lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 82° 25′ E.; eighty-five miles E.S.E. from Mundlah. In A.D. 1794 this was nothing more than an extensive straggling village of about 1,000 huts, many of which were then uninhabited. The surrounding country is remarkably productive and well cultivated, when contrasted with the rest of the desolate province to which it belongs. By the nearest travelling road, Ruttunpoor is 296 miles from Chunar. Its chief was formerly styled the raja of Choteesghur (thirty-six fortresses).

Near to the town is an idol made of blue granite, about nine feet in height, rubbed over with red paint and adorned with flowers. In the neighbourhood are a great many pools and tanks, and also a lake, the embankment of which is nearly two miles in length, and there are many ruins in the vicinity indicative of a superior state of society to what now exists. In A.D. 1760, after Mr. Law was made prisoner, a party of 120 French who had been under his command endeavoured to effect a retreat from Bahar into the Deccan. They halted and were entertained a few days by Bembajee, the Maharatta chief, but at the end of that time he put them all treacherously to death. Travelling distance from Calcutta by Chuta Nagpoor 493 miles; from Nagpoor 220; from Delhi 633; and from Poona 706 miles.—(*J. B. Blunt, Leckie, 1st Register, Rennell, &c.*)

RUTTUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fourteen miles E. from Broach; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 73° 26′ E.

RYACOTTA (*Raya Cotay*). — A town and fortress in the Salem and Barramahal district, ninety-two miles from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 28′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E. The town or pettah is no better than a large village, thinly peopled, and girt on all sides with jungle. The lower fort, nearly on a level with the pettah, has never been strong, and is now in a ruinous condition. In 1820, however, it was still occupied by a small garrison of invalids.

The first line of fortification on the rock above is within 250 feet of the summit, and the ascent is by a broad road winding round the mountain, and easily practicable on horse-back. The useless works have been suffered to decay, but they are preserved in high order at every accessible point, and mounted with artillery. The ascent to the upper rock is by steps. On a platform a little way above the first line of works are the barracks, magazines, ordnance sheds, and other principal buildings; the flagstaff is planted on the highest peak. There is a small cave temple excavated in the southern precipitous face of the Ryacotta rock, at a great height from its base, and of very difficult access. The air of Ryacotta, on account of its elevation, is so very tem-

perate, that even in the hot season the thermometer seldom rises above 82° of Fahrenheit, and cherry trees flourish on it remarkably well.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

RYAGUDDY (*Raya gadi*).—A town in the Northern Circars, sixty miles N.W. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 55′ N., lon. 83° 25′ E.

RYDROOG (*Raya durga*).—A town in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, 170 miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 14° 49′ N., lon. 77° 2′ E. The fortress of Rydroog occupies the summit of a stupenduous mass of granite rock, which rises to the height (as estimated by the eye) of 1,200 feet, and is connected by a lower ridge with a group of wild and naked mountains, bounding the plains of Chitteldroog to the north-east. The southern face of the rock is abrupt and inaccessible, and towards the west there is a triple line of works, and a lower fort at about 800 feet from the plain. Here are the remains of a palace built by the ancient rajas or poligars of Rydroog, and likewise Hindoo temples dedicated to Rama and Krishna; the gateway of one of them ornamented with obscene groups in stucco. The ascent is by a broad causeway constructed with great labour, and protected on the side of the precipice by a parapet wall, the whole much superior to the generality of the approaches to hill-forts in India. The town of Rydroog covers a considerable space, both within and without the pettah walls, and contains several other remarkable temples, more especially one dedicated to Krishna, which has a pillar in front for the display of lights at festivals, formed of one single block of granite about forty feet high.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RYEBAUGH (*Rai bagh, the Ray's garden*).—A district in the province of Bejapoor, occupying the Doab, or space included between the Krishna and Gutpurba river. This territory belongs partly to the raja of Colapoor and partly to the British government, as successors to the Peshwa. The portion that adjoins the Western Ghauts is wild, mountainous, and in many parts covered with forest; the eastern portion naked, bleak, and barren. The hill-forts are numerous and formidable. The coss, which in the northern quarter of Bejapoor expresses nearly the same distance as in other parts of Hindostan, increases to about two miles and a half as the Krishna is approached from the north; and after passing that river and entering Ryebaugh, it enlarges to three miles and upwards. The principal towns are Ryebaugh, Sankassen, and Chickoory.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

RYEBAUGH.—The ancient capital of the preceding district, situated twenty-six miles S.S.E. from Merritch; lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 75° E. It is surrounded by a bad wall, but in 1790 was not populous or extensive. Near the northern gate are some Mahomedan towns.—(*Moor, &c.*)

RYEGHUR (*Raya Ghar*).—A strong fortress in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the ghauts that bound the eastern frontier of the Concan, in a line between Poona and Fort Victoria, thirty-four miles S.W. from the first; lat. 18° 12′ N., lon. 73° 38′ E. This was one of the fortresses surrendered in 1817 by the Peshwa as a pledge of his sincerity, and which was afterwards restored. It was besieged on the rupture of 1818, and captured after a siege of fourteen days. Notwithstanding the stupendous height of the fortress, and the extensive area on its summit, the artillery practice on this occasion was so excellent, that shells showered into every quarter, and the palace set on fire, which quickened the enemy's determination to capitulate. When possession was taken, the Peshwa's wife, and public property to the value of five lacks of rupees, were discovered. Before this siege began, a passport was offered to her highness, but refused, and after the capture she was permitted to choose her own place of residence.

The palace of Sevajee and some religious buildings of contemporary date had long gone to decay, and even the tomb of the founder of the Maharatta empire was scarcely discernible. In Orme's history this fortress is invariably named Rairee, and he has much mistaken its geographical position.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

RYEPOOR (*Raya pura*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, division of Choteesghur, of which it might rank as the chief town; lat. 21° 15′ N., lon. 82° 13′ E., 190 miles east from Nagpoor, and 1,747 feet above the level of the sea. In 1794 this place contained about 3,000 huts, and had a stone fort in the north-east side, the walls of which were much decayed, but the ditch deep and wide. The soil in the neighbourhood is a rich black mould, no where more than three feet in depth, under which is found the solid rock, as is perceptible in all the beds of rivers, and the sides of tanks and wells. At the above date the only road from Cuttack to Nagpoor passed through this town. In recent times supplies from Calcutta sent by the Mahanuddy river have been landed at Pungah on the Sew river, within twenty-six miles of Ryepoor, and afterwards brought up here by the Karoo river, which is navigable during the rains.—(*J. B. Blunt, Colonel Agnew, &c.*)

RYEGHUR.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, usually dependent on the principality of Sumbhulpoor, and distant about fifty miles N.W. from the city of that name. In 1818 it was governed by Raja Joujar Singh, and was, compared with the rest of this miserable province, in a flourishing condition. In the alluvial soil, and in the banks of the rivers, gold, and sometimes diamonds, are found. The territory in general is also abundantly watered by various streams which flow through it from the hills, on their progress towards Cuttack and the valley of the Mahanuddy.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

RYNABAD (*Ghainabad*).—A small village in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, situated on the west side of the Boirub (Bhairava), eighty miles E. by N. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 89° 44′ E. For many years after the British obtained possession of Bengal, rumours were current that extensive masses of magnificent ruins existed among the jungles of the Sunderbunds, and particularly in the vicinity of Rynabad; but, after repeated investigations, none have been discovered, nor is it probable that any very ancient ruins should be found in a territory which is itself of recent formation, and destitute of fresh water.

RYPOORA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles S.E. from Huttah; lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E.

S.

SABRAO ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from Floris by the straits of Floris, and situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at forty miles, by eighteen the average breadth. This island is inhabited by the same class of people as the aboriginal mountaineers of Soloo, who, so late as 1820, had the reputation of being cannibals, with the frizzled hair and dark colour of the Papuas. Some small barter of wax with the coasting prows, and stock with the whalers, takes place, but great precautions are necessary to guard against surprise and assassination. Of their religion, manners, and customs we have scarcely any information, but it does not appear that they ever acknowledged the supremacy of any external power, native or European.—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

SACHEEN (or *Satragaum*).—A large estate in the province of Gujerat, pergunnah of Chourasse, granted in perpetuity by the Peshwa in

1791 to Siddee Abdul Kurreem Khan, commonly styled Balloo Meah, in exchange for the forts of Gingera, Dunda, Rajpoor, Causan, and Mudgur, with their dependencies situated in the Concan, which formed the hereditary principality of the Abyssinian family of the Siddees. The town of Sacheen stands in lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 73° 5′ E., and some parts of the estate reach to within two miles of Surat.

This territory was entirely independent of the former Poona government, and is still so of the British, the civil and police authority being administered by the nabob, or by persons delegated by him. In 1816 a negociation was entered on by the Bombay presidency to induce him to allow the British functionaries to exercise police and criminal jurisdiction within his estate, but it failed of success. His income, when clear, amounts to about 75,000 rupees per annum, but it is usually greatly involved.—(*Prendergast, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SACHORE.—See SANJORE.

SACKER —A town in the province of Gundwana, division of Gurramundlah, thirty-eight miles W.S.W. from Jubbulpoor; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E.

SACKEY.—A small fort in the province of Bengal, situated on the banks of the Adji river at its confluence with the Bhagirathi, and immediately opposite to the town of Cutwa. This fort was taken by Colonel Clive a few days before the battle of Plassey. Its turf ramparts are still tolerably entire, and its internal buildings are occupied as government stores.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SACKUR.—A district belonging to the Nizam in the province of Bejapoor, situated between the sixteenth and seventeenth degrees of north latitude, and named by the Mahomedans Nusseritabad. It is comprehended within the angle formed near the junction of the rivers Krishna and Beema, and contains much fertile land, imperfectly cultivated and thinly peopled. The town of Sackur stands in lat. 16° 36′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E., sixty-five miles E. by S. from the city of Bejapoor.

SACUR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, belonging to the British government, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda river. In 1820 it contained about 1,500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SADRAS.—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic province, forty-two miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12°31′ N., lon. 80° 14′ E. There was formerly a small fort, surrounded by a brick wall fifteen feet high, which was seized by M. Lally during the siege of Madras, in violation of the Dutch neutrality. In the time of the Dutch, who frequented it so long ago as 1647, it was a populous place, where ginghams of a superior quality were manufactured. In 1795, in consequence of the rupture with the Dutch, possession was taken of Sadras, which was annexed to the district of Chingleput, but in March 1818 it was regularly delivered over to M. Van Braam, the commissioner deputed to receive charge of it by the King of the Netherlands. In 1820 the ruins of the fort, two or three Dutch houses, a decayed tavern, and a very poor native town to the westward, were all that remained of this once flourishing settlement.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SADREE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer belonging to the Pertaubghur Raja, fifty-six miles E.S.E. from Odeypoor; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E., 1,782 feet above the level of the sea.

SADUNG.—A port in the island of Borneo, situated in lat. 2° 50′ N., lon. 111° 20′ E., from whence antimony is exported to Singapoor. It is said to be procured in large quantities from a mountain about one day's journey into the interior.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

SAEENAGHUR. — A small town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen

miles north from Belhary; lat. 23°59′ N., lon. 80° 18′ E.

Sagor Island (*Ganga sagara, the confluence of the Ganges with the ocean*).—An island belonging to the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river. Authorities vary as to the limits within which Sagor island, properly so called, is comprehended; some considering it as including a very extensive tract, while others confine it to the south-western extremity of the Sunderbunds, the whole of which is intersected by creeks dividing it into separate islets. According to the survey made by Lieutenant Blane, by a series of triangles, in 1812, the island of Sagor extends from the northern entrance of Channel Creek to the sea, comprising the whole of the lands situated to the westward of Channel Creek. An official map of the island, drawn in 1811, makes it twenty miles in length, by five in general breadth. This station is not found so destructive to the crews of ships as those further up the Hooghly; and it is proved by experience, that the further down the river the less sickness prevails, Sagor being the healthiest anchorage on the coast. On account of the vast expansion of the river, ships having here the advantage of lying at a great distance from the shore, enjoy a refreshing circulation of sea air, and escape the deleterious exhalations from the mud-banks and putrid vegetation at Culpee and Diamond Harbour. Although the shores are bordered with trees and thick underwood, the interior in many spots is said to be merely covered with grass jungle, which in the dry season may be easily removed by fire.

Sagor Island is a celebrated place of pilgrimage among the Hindoos, on account of the great sanctity arising from its situation at the junction of the holiest branch of the Ganges with the ocean. Many sacrifices are in consequence here annually performed, of aged persons of both sexes, which are voluntary, and of children, which of course, are involuntary, the periods fixed for their celebration being the full moon in November and January. It does not appear that these sacrifices are sanctioned by any tenet in the Hindoo code; but according to Hindoo notions the vow itself has the force of a religious dogma, and is considered equally binding as a written law. In 1801 only a few Gossains (Hindoo devotees) resided on this dreary island, who levied contributions from the pilgrims and shopkeepers resorting to Sagor, deriving their title from a sage named Capila, who is said to have lived 2,000 years before the commencement of the Christian era. These pilgrims bathe where the Ganges and ocean unite, perform obsequies for their deceased ancestors, and worship in the temple of Capila, here reverenced as a god. This temple is under the alternate charge of a Bairaggi and a Sanyasi, the latter presiding at the assembly in the month of Kartik, and the former in Magh or January. The[illegible] levy a tax of [illegible] son who visits the [illegible] the amount of which is divided among five different establishments of Ramanandi Bairaggies in the vicinity of Calcutta. When Mr. Ward visited the temple he found in the court a mendicant devotee of the class who always keep an arm raised above their heads (the urda bahu), and also another ascetic, by whom he was informed that at the close of the preceding festival five or six mendicants had taken up their abode within the same precincts, most of whom had been subsequently carried off by tigers.

In 1813 the attention of government being called to Sagor Island, it was ordered to be surveyed, when it was found to contain 429,806 begas of dry land. It was then advertized to be leased to natives (Europeans being excluded) for seven years free of all assessment, and many proposals were received from native speculators, but the scheme ultimately wholly failed, and the island was subsequently leased to an association composed of Europeans as well as natives, free of

rent for thirty years, and to pay only four annas per bega ever after. The undertaking was in consequence begun with the characteristic vigour of Europeans, but so many unforeseen difficulties occurred that up to the 1st September 1820 not more than four square miles had been effectually cleared. Amongst other obstacles it was found that as the woods were cut down the sea encroached, the sandy beach not having sufficient tenacity of itself to resist the invasion. Twenty-five families of Arracan Mughs were settled at the confluence of two creeks, and a road constructed for the accommodation of pilgrims to the temple of Capila. Considerable difficulty had been experienced from the want of fresh water, to obviate which shallow tanks for the reception of rain water were ordered to be dug; but this deficiency must always greatly impede the prosperity of the island. In 1820 a large portion of Sagor was under-leased to a European gentleman free of rent for twenty years, one-fourth to be cleared in five years, and the remainder in succession. Many other estates were also leased to other individuals, the whole to expire on the 1st October 1839, when the whole reverted to the above-named association. Could this measure be satisfactorily completed, a maritime city would soon start up sufficient for all the purposes of external commerce, and thereby prevent the necessity of so many Europeans proceeding up the river to Calcutta, from thence penetrating to the interior. If the ships could also at once receive their cargoes and be despatched from Sagor, the voyage would be greatly expedited, and the expense of port charges and insurance materially lessened.—(*Public MS. Documents, Police Reports, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SAHARUNPOOR.—A large district in the province of Delhi, intersected by the thirtieth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the chain of hills from which issue the Ganges and Jumna; to the south by the district of Merut, or South Saharunpoor; to the east it is separated from Moradabad by the Ganges, and on the west from the territories of the protected Seik chieftains by the Jumna. It 1807 it contained 5,900 square miles, or about 6,280,000 begas.

Although placed between two large rivers, the Ganges and the Jumna, which here run nearly parallel, at the distance of about fifty-five miles, this country is not subject (except the Cadda) to the periodical inundation that prevails in Bengal and the more south-eastern provinces. The surface of the country, however, is a continued flat to the base of the hills, which rise abruptly, marking the northern limits of the immense tracts through which the Ganges flows to the sea. The Cadda (an extensive tract of land adjoining the Ganges) is separated from the adjacent territory by a very abrupt descent of many feet, and where not brought under tillage is overgrown with high grass. The soil is fertile, and in general highly cultivated, producing sugar, wheat, cotton, indigo, and tobacco; the two first in such abundance and of so excellent a quality as to furnish one-fifth of the total revenue. Until the ravages it sustained during the turbulent reigns of Aurengzebe's successors, Saharunpoor was esteemed one of the richest divisions of the Mogul empire; but from that monarch's death in 1707, until its acquisition by the British in 1803, it scarcely had an interval of rest from external invasion or internal dissention. The depredations of the Seiks had been so incessant, that for many years after it devolved to the British almost every village continued surrounded by a wall and ditch, capable ot resisting the attacks of plundering cavalry. At present the principal towns are Saharunpoor, the capital, Hurdwar, Ambeta, and Deobund. For the greater part of the year the climate is temperate, and in the winter even cold; but during the height of the summer the heat is intense and the country burned up.

The lion, which was long supposed

to be unknown in India, has been recently ascertained to exist in considerable numbers in this district and about Luddeanna. They have been also killed in the northern parts of Rohilcund and in the neighbourhood of Moradabad and Rampoor, as large, it is said, as the average of those in the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope. Indeed, the continued incursions of the Seiks, before it came under the British, had brought the northern portion in the vicinity of Zabeta Khan's canal into a complete state of jungle and forest. The security, however, which it has enjoyed since their expulsion has influenced the zemindars again to bring their waste lands gradually into cultivation. But the absence of water forms a considerable obstable to the prosecution of agriculture on a considerable scale, the scarcity being such that a single well in some parts supplies the neighbouring villages for a circuit of several miles: and the soil is so loose and sandy, that the sinking of wells is at all times difficult and expensive, and their continuance precarious. This defect was formerly counteracted by the existence of the Doab, or Zabeta Khan's canal, the restoration of which having been undertaken by government, we may expect ere long to find the husbandman peaceably prosecuting his labours where lions now roar.

The country originally possessed by Nujib ud Dowlah, an Afghan chief, appointed prime minister to Shah Allum by Ahmed Abdalli of Cabul, comprehended the district of Saharunpoor, that of Sirhind, and some tracts of country round Delhi. He was succeeded by his son Zabeta Khan, who dying in 1785, was succeeded by the execrable Gholaum Caudir Khan, who in 1788 put out the eyes of the unfortunate emperor Shah Allum with a dagger, and tortured, starved to death, and massacred many of the royal family. A few months afterwards he was himself put to death, with torture, by Madhajee Sindia, who conquered and appropriated the greater part of his dominions.

In 1803 Saharunpoor, along with all the other Maharatta conquests in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, were acquired by the British government, which in 1804 separated it into two divisions, the northern and the southern, the last also named the district of Meerut. In 1815 the first, or Saharunpoor district, contained 1,879,098 pucka begas of land in cultivation, assessed at 25,79,817 rupees, which was realized, presenting a government rent of one rupee six annas per bega. The waste lands were then said to amount to 2,444,317 begas, and those cultivatable but neglected, to 2,124,705 begas. In this instance the standard of mensuration is the pucka, or large bega, equal to three cutcha, or small begas. In 1807 the population of the district was estimated at 703,000 persons, or 119 to the square mile.

Large tracts of waste land still remain in Saharunpoor, which if excluded from the operation of the permanent settlement, might at a future, though distant period, be made available to the revenue; and notwithstanding the substantial benefits that in ordinary cases arise from the permanency of the landed assessment, the principle may admit of exceptions, more especially in cases where the improvements have been effected, not by the exertions of individuals, but by the care and at the expense of the government. The exception will also apply where land in an actual state of cultivation bears but a very inconsiderable proportion to that in a state of nature. In all other contingencies the stability of the public revenue and its punctual collection tend greatly to the general amelioration of the country and of its inhabitants; and its influence is felt in many branches of the administration, with which, to a superficial view, they would not appear to have any connexion. An applicable case occurs in Saharunpoor, where it has long been in contemplation to re-open Zabeta Khan's

canal, which, previous to its extinction, must have fertilized an extent of country, including windings, of not less than 200 miles. Its channel runs from the base of the hills, through the whole upper half of the Doab to opposite Delhi, and in effecting its renewal a deep excavation is by no means necessary, for being intended to irrigate the land, its surface should be dug as little as possible below the general level of the plain. When completed, large tracts of land, now waste, will be rendered productive, when, of course, government would be justified in profiting from a source which had been created by its funds. —(*Public MS. Documents, Scott, Franklin, Deane, Marquis of Hastings, Fullarton, &c.*)

SAHARUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the preceding district, ninety miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 57′ N., lon. 77° 32′ E. Elevation above the level of the sea, 1,013 feet. This is a large town, and many of the houses are built of brick, but it does not contain a single remarkable edifice. In the neighbourhood there is a monastery of Bairaggies, situated in a dense grove of trees, where a host of monkeys reside, and come down daily at a certain call to be fed. A small botanic garden (intended chiefly as an intermediate nursery for plants unable to bear the heats of Bengal) is maintained here at the charge of government. Saharunpoor was at one period a considerable military station, and when the Gorkhas were in force to the north, a fortress was erected; but all apprehension from that quarter having ceased, the regular military have been withdrawn, and the fort converted to a gaol. It is a quadrangular work of considerable extent and strength, having a double ditch, ramparts faced with brick, and protected by round bastions of earth at the angles and on each side of the gate, besides an outer wall, also constructed of earth.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SAHDREE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Mewar; lat. 24° 28′ N., lon. 74° 30′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 1,782 feet, being 189 feet below Little Sahdree. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Pertaubghur.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SAHGUR.—A town and small district in the province of Allahabad, thirty five miles S.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 18′ N., lon. 79° 6′ E.

SAIGONG.—A town in the Cochin Chinese empire, of which it is the chief commercial emporium; lat. 10° 47′ N., lon. 107° 5. E. It stands on a point formed by the confluence of two branches of the Donnai river, and in fact consists of two cities extending about six miles along the northern bank; one more recently built, called Bingeh, is situated above a mile from the other called Saigong. The first is contiguous to a citadel or fortress recently constructed on European principles, wet ditch, and rampart thirty feet high. In 1821 it was still unfinished, and without cannon; but for magnitude, strength, boldness of design, and perseverance of execution, a most extraordinary production for India beyond the Ganges. It is of a quadrangular form, and capable of mounting 800 cannon, each side being 1,187 toises in length, and it contains spacious barracks for the soldiers. The royal palace is in the centre of the city, and is an oblong building about one hundred feet by sixty, built principally of brick, and raised on a terrace about six feet high; but the town of Saigong has not been visited by the king or any of the royal family since the time of the civil wars.

The magazines for naval and military stores are six immense buildings of great extent, consisting of a mixture of brick and wood-work, with walls about eighteen feet high. The houses are principally of wood, roofed with palm-leaves, and one story high, but some few are of brick. The streets are regular and spacious, intersecting each other at right angles, and some of them paved with brick. The quays are of brick and

stone, and extend nearly a mile along the river. In 1819 the naval yard or arsenal contained 190 gallies, from forty to one hundred feet long, some of them armed with sixteen three-pounders. There were also two frigates of European construction, and abundance of good ship timber, with spars for masts and yards, and plenty of skilful ship carpenters. There was formerly a cannon-foundry here, but that at Hue is the only one now in operation.

The site of the Saigong citadel, a natural conical mound about sixty feet high, is the first elevated spot that occurs in the river from Cape St. James, the surrounding country being alluvial, and much intersected by creeks. The ship navigation of the Donnai river may be said to finish at Saigong, but small vessels and canoes may proceed much higher up. The passage from the sea to this city is often made in one tide, and usually in boats, managed by women, but many hundred of country craft are always seen lying before the town, which in 1819 was said to contain 180,000 inhabitants.—(*Lieutenant White, Finlayson, &c.*)

SAIHUR (*or Shehr*).—A town and strong fortress in the province of Agra, belonging to the principality of Jeypoor, about sixty-eight miles travelling distance from the city of Jeypoor. This place is said to be dependent on Khooshalgur, a town situated to the south-west. The fort is of masonry, and presents a lofty and striking group of castellated buildings, covering the entire ridge of an isolated white rock rising from the midst of an extensive plain. Every accessible point below is protected by outworks, and the town or pettah, which extends to the north of the rock, contains some good houses, and a considerable population. It is encircled by a strong mud wall and wet ditch, and is covered on one side by a jeel or shallow lake. This is one of the few places in the Jeypoor territory which always resisted the attempts of Ameer Khan during his temporary occupation of the country. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SAIJOOR.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, thirty-five miles N.N.E. from the city of that name; lat. 20° 18′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. It is now a miserable assemblage of mud huts, mostly gone to ruin, but the large open space within its mud walls indicates a former state of greater importance.

ST. BARBE'S ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated under the equinoctial line, lon. 107° 40′ E. In making this island from the N.W. it looks like two islands, the extremes being higher than the centre. It is about three leagues in circumference. There is anchorage where wood and water may be had on the south-east side, in twenty-five fathoms water.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

ST. BERNARDINO (*Straits of*).—These straits separate the islands of Luzon and Samar in the Philippines, and have a small island in the centre of the same name. The whole are much infested by the piratical prows, which plunder and enslave the inhabitants of the sea-coast.

ST. JAMES (*Cape of*).—This cape forms the eastern entrance of the river Saigon, in Cochin China; lat. 10° 23′ N., lon. 106° 48′ E. It is the extremity of a ridge of hills about 300 feet high, which form a promontory on the left side of the mouth of the Saigon river, the opposite side being alluvial sand.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

ST. JULIAN ISLE.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, about eighteen leagues distant from Victoire isle; lat. 0° 49′ N., lon. 106° 50′ E.

ST. MATTHEW'S ISLES.—A cluster of very small islands situated about twenty-five leagues east from the island of Bootan, between the fifth and sixth degrees of south latitude and the 124th and 125th of east longitude.

ST. MATTHEW'S ISLE.—One of the

Mergui Archipelago, which in 1825 appeared to be uninhabited. This island has a bold shore, little level ground, and is covered with a thick forest. The most prominent peak has been estimated at 3,000 feet in height.—(*Lieutenant Low, &c.*)

St. Patrick and St. George.—Two of the united peaks in Northern Hindostan, situated at the head of the Bhagirathi or true Ganges; lat. 32° 52′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E. The first is 22,798 feet, the last 22,654 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

St. Pedro.—A small but handsome town in the province of Bejapoor, stretching along the shore under a rocky promontory, two miles west from old Goa, with which it is nearly joined by a straggling line of villas and religious edifices. Saint Pedro is the residence of the archbishop of Goa, and of several of the public functionaries.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

St. Thomas's Mount. — The site of an extensive cantonment in the Carnatic, the head-quarters of the Madras artillery, eight miles S.S.W. from Madras. On the summit of the rock that rises immediately behind the cantonment, and gives the name to the spot, is an ancient Roman Catholic church, to which there is an easy ascent by steps. The whole hill belongs to the Portuguese ecclesiastical establishment of Saint Thomé, and at its base are a number of Christian tomb-stones, with inscriptions, some of so old a date as 1680. On another eminence near Madras, called the Little Mount, are the buildings of an old convent, near to which the road is carried across the Meliapoor river by a bridge of twenty-nine arches, called the Armenian bridge, 1,230 feet long, and a work both simple and solid.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

St. Thomé.—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, named by the natives Mailapuram, or the city of peacocks; but Mr. Wilson thinks it ought to be Mihilaropya, an ancient city, and possibly the Meliarpha of Pliny; lat. 13° 2′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E., three miles south from Madras. It stands close to the sea, which here forms a kind of bay or small haven, and the adjacent plain abounds with coco-nut trees, which retain their verdure throughout the year. The inhabitants consist of Hindoos, Mahomedans, and Roman Catholic Christians; the latter a bastard race of a dark complexion, the progeny of Portuguese and natives.

When the Portuguese commander took the town of Meliapoor (Saint Thomé), he found a great many inhabitants who professed the Christian religion of the Nestorian or Chaldean persuasion. He changed the name of the place to Saint Thomé in honour of the apostle, which it still retains among Europeans. In A.D. 1672 a French fleet from Trincomalee, under the command of M. de la Haye, unexpectedly landed 300 men and some guns, and took St. Thomé by storm. They afterwards successfully resisted the numerous forces that the natives brought against them; but in 1674 were compelled to surrender to the Dutch, who gave it up to the king of Golconda. In 1749 this town was taken possession of by Admiral Boscawen, as he found the Roman Catholic inhabitants and priests conveyed intelligence to the French in Pondicherry. For many years St. Thomé belonged to the nabobs of Arcot; but after the death of Anwar ud Deen it seemed to belong to nobody, for there were no functionaries, either civil or military, acting with authority in the place. During the wars of the Carnatic it was occupied by the Madras government, and it has ever since remained subject to that government. It is still a considerable town, and full of Portuguese churches.—(*Orme, Fra. Paolo, H. Wilson, Bruce, &c.*)

Saipoor.—A town in the province of Gundwana, eighty miles south from Mirzapoor; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 82° 46′ E.

SAIBEE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles N.W. from Banda; lat. 25° 43′ N., lon. 79° 57′ E.

SAKAING *(in Ava)*. — See CHAGAING.

SALANGHUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty miles south from Chitore; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E.

SALATIGA.—A small town and fort in the island of Java, twenty-eight miles south from Samarang; lat. 7° 13′ S., lon. 110° 35′ E.

SALAWATTY ISLE.—One of the Papuan or Oriental negro isles, situated about the 131st degree of east longitude, and separated from the great island of Papua by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by twenty-five the average breadth. This island produces a great deal of sago of an excellent quality.

In A.D. 1770 a fleet of Papuan boats sailed up the straits of Patientia, which separate Batchian from Gilolo, on a plundering expedition, but the Dutch took the raja of Salawatty prisoner, and banished him to the Cape of Good Hope.

SALAYR ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the southern extremity of Celebes, about the sixth degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at forty miles, by eight the average breadth. There are many smaller isles lying round and near Salayr, and belong to it, but only two are inhabited, Bonarautte and Calawe.

This island is mountainous and woody, yet better peopled and cultivated than most of the Eastern isles, the inhabitants also appearing to have attained a superior stage of civilization. The principal produce is millet, which is the chief subsistence of the natives, and cultivated advantageously, each field being fenced in. Cotton is raised in the same manner, from which coarse blue and white striped cloths are manufactured for internal consumption and exportation. The houses of the natives are good, and the richer classes in travelling are carried in bamboo chairs over the hills, horses being used only in the level country. By Capt. Forrest in 1775 the inhabitants were computed at 60,000 persons.

The Macassars, who had obtained possession of this island, made a cession of it to the king of Ternate, from whom it was wrested by the Dutch East-India Company. In 1775 Salayr was governed by fourteen native regents, who resorted once a year, in the month of October, to Fort Rotterdam in Celebes, to perform the customary duties of vassalage to the Dutch, on whose part a junior merchant resided on Salayr, in a palisadoed fort.—*(Stavorinus, Forrest, Capt. Hunter, &c.)*

SALEM *(including the Barramahal.)*—A district in the south of India, under the Madras presidency, situated above the ghauts, and comprehending within its jurisdiction the adjacent territory of the Barramahal. At the northern extremity it has the district of Cudapah; on the south Trichinopoly and Coimbatoor; to the east it is bounded by the Carnatic below the ghauts; and on the west by Mysore and the district of Coimbatoor.

The surface throughout is of great elevation, being placed on the summit of the table-land above the Eastern Ghauts. The Sherwahray hills are situated about six miles north of the town of Salem. The highest point, on which there is a pagoda, was found by barometrical observation to be 5,260 feet above the level of the sea. These hills consist of three separate naads or divisions, the Salem, the Mochos, and the Mootoo nands. The last is the loftiest, and almost a table-land, seven miles by three, and tolerably productive of wheat, barley, and millet. The inhabitants are exclusively of the caste named Vellalers, who, according to their own traditions, migrated from Conjeveram about 600 years ago. The climate of this region is not so

cold as that of the Neelgherry mountains, owing to the superior altitude of the latter; but still the temperature is sufficiently low to induce the visits of invalid Europeans with exhausted constitutions—a numerous class in India. The principal rivers are the Cavery, the Panaur, and the Palar, which penetrate through the mountains, and proceed through the lower Carnatic to the bay of Bengal. The principal towns are Salem, Namcul, Ahtoor, Caverypatam, and Kistnagherry.

The chief grains cultivated in Salem are Indian corn and rice; of the first, two crops are occasionally procured in one year from the same field, the earliest in April, the second in September. The cultivation of cotton is limited, in many parts it is not raised at all, and is always sown in a slovenly manner mixed with other seeds. In this district as well as in Chingleput there is abundance of waste land, the possession of which, there is reason to believe, has added little or nothing to the means of those persons who were induced to become purchasers of estates, nor in any degree diminished the evil consequences that have resulted from taking its supposed value into consideration, on assessing the land revenue permanently: for although twenty years have elapsed since that event, it does not appear that real wastes to any extent have been occupied during so long a period of time. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue was 5,19,453 pagodas, and in 1822 according to the returns made by the collectors under the Madras presidency, the total population amounted to 1,075,985 persons.

Salem (*or Chelam*).—The original capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 11°37′ N., lon. 78°13′ E., 114 miles S.E. from Seringapatam. Cotton goods were formerly purchased here for the East-India Company, and saltpetre may be procured at a moderate price. In the town are some handsome choultries. —(*Heyne, &c.*)

Salen.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, the chief place of the district in which Shembegewn is placed. This district in 1826 was reckoned the most productive in the Birman empire, and was in consequence monopolized by the queen's brother.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Salengore (*Salangor*).—A petty state (originally a Buggess colony from Celebes) in the Malay peninsula, extending along the straits of Malacca, and governed by a Mahomedan chief in 1822, named Sultan Ibrahim, descended from a Buggess, the founder of Salengore, and bearing the Hindoo title of raja. This territory is poorer and more thinly inhabited than that of Perak, but the inhabitants are more civilized, and speak a *remarkably pure Malay*. Only small vessels can enter the river, which is obstructed by a mud flat. Colong or Kalang is a new settlement, at which the raja in 1818 resided on account of the greater facility of procuring tin, the staple commodity, from the interior. Both there and at Salengore, the raja and the Capt. China are the only merchants on a large scale.

In A.D. 1784, in conjunction with the Rhio people, the Salengorians blockaded Malacca, but the state has since greatly declined, the inhabitants having migrated to more tranquil quarters. In 1822 the town of Salengore did not contain more than 100 inhabitants. In 1818 a treaty of commerce was concluded with Salengore by the Penang government, to anticipate the revival of the old monopoly then contemplated by the Dutch. On this occasion the raja also engaged, that if any British subjects were offered for sale in his dominions, he would seize them and send them back to Prince of Wales' Island.—(*Cracroft, &c.*)

Salgrams.—See Gunduck River.

Salemow.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventy-seven miles east from Bopaul; lat. 23° 23′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E.

SALIANAH.—A territory in Northern Hindostan, named also Khasant, adjoining the king of Oude's dominions. The town of Salianah stands on a high hill, where the chief has a brick house, surrounded by mud-walled huts; lat. 28° 37′ N., lon. 81° 5′ E., 120 miles N. by W. from Lucknow. The raja formerly held also some land on the plain within the Oude dominions, and in a valley between the hills had a considerable mart, called Jarapani or cool water, which is still a considerable thoroughfare. All the estates among the hills being seized by the Gorkhas, the family sought refuge on their possessions in the plains subject to the king of Oude, with whose territories, for some reason not very obvious, the Gorkhas never interfered. Why they respected them more than those of the East-India Company has never been ascertained, but that they did so is certain. The inhabitants of Salianah are five-eighths Khasiyas, or bastards of various kinds; one-eighth pure Brahmins; one-sixteenth bastard Brahmins; and the remaining three-sixteenths consist of various impure tribes.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

SALIBABO ISLES.—A cluster of islands in the Eastern seas, situated about the fourth degree of north latitude, and between the 126th and 127th degrees of east longitude. The names of the principal are Tulour (or Kercolang), Salibabo, and Kabruang, the first being much the largest. Salibabo lies to the south of Tulour, from which it is separated by a narrow strait about one mile in breadth. The circumference is about fifteen miles.

All these islands are well cultivated and populous, having plenty of provisions, such as calavanses, potatoes, rice, goats, hogs, &c. The inhabitants are of the Malay colour, with long hair, and have for arms, lances, swords, targets, and daggers. They are much oppressed by their kolanos or chiefs, and sold as slaves for the most trifling offences. The inhabitants of Salibabo island are very frequently at war with those of Kabruang, distant five or six miles. They barter provisions with such ships as pass for coarse calicoes, red handkerchiefs, coarse cutlery, &c.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

SALIVAUCUM.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, forty-four miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 37′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E.

SALLIER.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, sixty-eight miles E.N.E. from Damaun; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 73° 59′ E.

SALPEE.—A small town in the province of Bejapoor, belonging to the raja of Satara, situated at the foot of the stony pass that winds up along the bed of a nullah leading to the valley of Satara, from which town it is about twenty-one miles distant to the north-east.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SALSETTE ISLE.—This island belonged to the Mogul province of Aurungabad, and was formerly separated from Bombay by a narrow and shallow strait, across which a causeway has lately been made. In length it may be estimated at eighteen miles, by thirteen the average breadth. The soil of this island is well adapted for the cultivation of indigo, sugar, cotton, flax, and hemp, and has of late been considerably improved by judicious regulations. The surface is an alternation of hill and dale, and the vallies, especially in the southern quarter, well cultivated. The most substantial improvement that has yet taken place is the causeway which connects Salsette with Bombay, completed by Mr. Duncan in 1805.

This island is remarkably rich in mythological antiquities, and the remains of tanks, terraces, flights of steps, and forests of wild palmyra trees, indicate a former state of prosperity, and the collection of a considerable population. At Kenneri, there are several very extraordinary caverns excavated, the largest resembling that at Carli, but inferior in size and elegance. Its peculiar ornaments are two gigantic figures of

Buddha, nearly twenty feet high, each filling one side of the vestibule. They are exactly alike and in perfect preservation, in consequence of their having been adopted and painted red by the Portuguese, who transformed the temple of Buddha into a Christian church. This island, named Salsette by Europeans, is by the natives called Jhalta, or Shaster, the derivation of which is uncertain. It was long possessed by the Portuguese, but was wrested from them by the Maharattas about A.D. 1750. In 1773, during a rupture with that nation, the Company's troops obtained possession, and it was afterwards formally ceded by the Maharattas at the treaty of Poorunder in 1776, and subsequently confirmed it in 1783, at which period all the small islands in the gulf formed by Bombay and Salsette were also acquired.

The population of Salsette was estimated ten years ago by the missionaries at about 50,000, of which number probably one-fifth might be Christians, members of the Portuguese church. The lower orders consist of cultivators, fishermen, and drawers of toddy. These, as may be supposed, are but indifferent Christians, who, whilst they are in the habit of attending a Christian sanctuary, still retain in their houses many symbols of the Hindoo mythology, and continue addicted to many pernicious usages of that superstition. Besides the native Christians of Salsette, there are resident at Tanna, the capital of the island, about one hundred or more European soldiers with their families, who have been invalided, or who have retired from the service, who prefer spending the remainder of their days in India to returning to the severe climate of their native country.

Notwithstanding its vicinity to the seat of government, no small proportion of the inhabitants of Salsette so late as 1824, were still as wild as Bheels, and their manners and customs as little known as the mountain Gonds. These are the charcoal burners, an occupation exercised by a peculiar caste, who dwell entirely in the woods, have no intercourse with the Hindoos of the [illegible] and bring down loads of charc[illegible] particular spots, whence it is carried away by the dealers in that article, who deposit in its place a payment settled by custom, of rice, clothing, and iron tools. Several attempts have been made at different times to become better acquainted with this secluded race, but with little success, partly owing to their excessive shyness, and partly to the contempt in which they are held by their Hindoo neighbours.

The civilized inhabitants of Salsette are generally so quiet and tractable a race, that in 1813 it was stated by the magistrate, that for more than two years no native of the island had been committed for trial, the only cases brought before the court during that period having been crimes committed by native military officers and soldiers. Petty quarrels and assaults were frequent, originating from too liberal potations of intoxicating liquors, which are unfortunately both cheap and abundant. It is difficult to say what is the dialect of this island, for the inhabitants being composed of many different nations, their transactions are carried on in the English, Portuguese, Maharatta, Concanese, Hindostany, and Gujeratty languages, in all of which mortgages, deeds of sale, and partnership, and accounts current are occasionally kept and registered. Most of the pleadings before the judge have hitherto been carried on in the English language; that most frequently used for colloquial purposes is the corrupt jargon called the Concanese. In 1813 the revenue of Salsette, from all sources, amounted to 2,35,807 rupees. In 1820 David Malcolm, Esq., of Bombay, applied for a five years' lease of forty begas (about fourteen acres) of land on the island of Salsette, with a view to the experimental culture of Bourbon cotton, but the Bombay presidency being fettered by the orders of the Court of Directors, prohibiting all grants of land to Europeans, withheld its sanction

from the lease of this small quantity. —(*Hallet, Missionaries, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, Lord Valentia, Warden, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Salt Range (*of mountains*).—A chain of mountains in Afghanistan, which commences from the south-east side of the Suffaid Coh, or White Mountain, which is the northern peak of the Soliman range in Cabul, from whence it extends in a south-easterly direction, by the south of Teree, to Calabaugh, where it crosses the Indus, stretches across the Punjab, and ends at Jelalpoor on the right bank of the Jhylum or Hydaspes. This range abounds in salt, which is dug out in various forms at different places. To the eastward it yields a rock salt of a brownish colour, which is used in Hindostan and known by the name of Lahore salt.

Saluen River (*the Thau Leuen of the Burmese*).—A river of India beyond the Ganges, the source of which is unknown, but which, according to the Burmese authorities, passes through the Chinese province, where it is named the Lookiang, and afterwards through the Laos or Shan country. Notwithstanding the remoteness of its source, it cannot rank high either for size or utility. Its channel is broad but shallow, and much obstructed by shoals, islands, and rapids, that, excepting its southern branch, and its mouth, is not navigable for vessels of any considerable size. Immediately below the town of Martaban it is divided by the large island of Pooloo Yoon (or Bilu) into two branches before it reaches the sea. The southern of these at its mouth is seven miles broad; the northern, although wide, is dangerous, and impracticable for ships of burthen.

Three large rivers, the Saluen, the Gain, and the Attaran, join opposite to Martaban, where they form a vast expanse of water; inland they diverge to different points of the compass. The Gain river is supposed to have its sources in the hills that separate Martaban from Siam, its course being towards the west. This is a stream of considerable breadth but of no great depth, its channel being much obstructed by sand-bank islands and sand-banks. The Attaran has its source in the same region as the Gain, but is a narrow, sluggish stream in its whole course. Mr. Crawfurd, in the Diana steam-boat, ascended it seventy miles when the water was at the lowest, without experiencing any difficulty; above that point it suddenly narrowed and became a mountain rivulet. The tide in all these rivers runs up 100 miles from the mouth, and to that distance the navigation for boats and small craft is safe and easy. The course of all three in the vicinity of Martaban is through a champaign country of great fertility.

Samanah.—A large town (now in ruins) in the province of Delhi, seventeen miles S.S.W. from Puttiallah.

Samanap.—A Dutch residency in the island of Madura, inhabited principally by Chinese and Malays; lat. 7° 5′ S., lon. 114° E.

Samadang.—A large inland town in Java, situated on the high road from Buitenzorg to Cheribon, 144 miles travelling distance E.S.E. from Buitenzorg; lat. 6° 45′ S., lon. 107° 55′ E.

Samaikyan.—A village in Ava situated within the district attached to the capital. This is a mart from whence cotton is exported to the China market, and in the vicinity saltpetre of an excellent quality is manufactured; but the price is double that of the best quality in the Calcutta market. It is a royal monopoly and jealously watched.

Samar.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, situated S.E. from Luzon, from which it is separated by a strait about five leagues in breadth. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles, by sixty the average breadth. The soil is extremely fertile, and cultivated with little trouble. Besides other grains, the native Bisayans raise a considerable quantity of rice, which is wholly appropriated

to the use of the parochial clergy or of the settlement at Manilla. The food of the natives consists chiefly of a species of potato, yams, and a root named gaby. The sugar-cane, cabbages, garlic, onions, melons, the China orange, lemons, vegetables, and several fruits not common in India, are cultivated here, particularly figs, of which there are many different species. Pepper, honey, and wax are found in the woods which swarm with birds, and among others, the domestic fowl. In these forests also there are many kinds of monkeys, some remarkably large, deer, wild buffaloes, and other quadrupeds. The iron-tree, ebony, and dying woods grow in every part of the island, and gold-dust is found in the interior.

The natives of Samar are Bisayans; such as reside on the sea-coast were formerly Mahomedans, but have been converted by the missionary Jesuits to the religion and allegiance of Spain. Their houses are constructed of bamboos, and raised a few feet from the ground to admit of a circulation of air underneath, and the natives generally are lodged, fed, and clothed at very little expense. The streams are everywhere shaded by the bamboo, and the woods contain creeping plants and rattans, which supply the stead of nails in a Bisayan's dwelling. Cotton and the fibres of the banyan fig-tree furnish materials for the scanty apparel he requires. The priests exercise over them a patriarchal control, which is in general cheerfully submitted to. Advice and admonition on their part is always accompanied with some small present of wine, medicines, liquor, or animal food, which influences the Indian to an industry he would not otherwise exert. When punishment is necessary it is promptly inflicted, which the priest is enabled to do by acting in a military as well as sacerdotal capacity. In his own parish it is competent to each missionary to issue orders for building or repairing the fortress, for providing it with cannon and ammunition, and for the construction of war canoes, which he frequently commands in person. The instrument mostly used, both for the purposes of war and industry, is a species of creese, somewhat different from that of the Malays. Formerly the galleon always touched here on the passage from Acapulco to Manilla, which attracted the Indians from the neighbouring islands.—(*La Page*, *&c.*)

SAMARANG. — A large district in Java, which formerly ranked second in importance to Batavia. Under the old Dutch government, the administration of the Eastern districts of Java was conducted by a governor and council residing at Samarang, whose authority was very great, being the only channel of communication with the governor-general at Batavia. The ambassadors to the native courts of Suryacarta and Yugyacarta corresponded with him, and by him the succession to the throne of the Susuhunan and sultan was decided. Although (such was the false economy of the Dutch East-India Company) he literally had no salary whatever from the government treasury, the resident at Samarang was supposed to realize from his perogatives an income of not less than 30,000 dollars per annum. This absurd system continued without alteration until the arrival of Marshal Daendal in 1808, when most of these illegal emoluments were appropriated by government, and fixed salaries allowed to the different residents, who were prohibited all commerce in the productions of their respective districts. By these and other energetic measures a much more regular, efficient, and pure administration than had existed at any prior period was first introduced by a military officer.

According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the Samarang district occupied an area of 1,166 square miles, and contained a population of 327,610 persons, of which number 1,139 were Chinese.—(*Raffles*, *&c.*)

SAMARANG.—A town in the island of Java, of which it is the principal central station; lat. 6° 56′ S., lon. 110°

27′ E. This is a large town, and in 1815 contained 20,000 inhabitants, including a considerable European population. It is defended by a stone parapet and rampart, with bastions and a wet ditch, but only calculated to resist a native power. Between the town and the sea is an impassable morass, which prevents any approach from that side but by two raised causeways. It has a neat appearance and contains a number of good houses, besides a large church and town house. The commerce of Samarang is extensive, it being the general depôt of this quarter of the island, which produces large quantities of rice, sugar, coffee, and pepper.—(*Thorn, Stavorinus, &c.*)

Sambapilly.—A small village in the island of Ceylon within the Candian territories, fifty miles S.W. from Batacolo; lat. 7°21′ N., lon. 81° 20′ E. This place is above seventy marching miles from Surcamong, the intervening country being excessively wild and mountainous. For sixty miles of the above distance not a house or human creature is to be seen, nor is there any thing to indicate that it ever was peopled, except the paths through the jungles and round the bases of the hills. One broad and several lesser rivers cross the route. In the immediate vicinity of Sambapelly the country presents a more favourable appearance, some villages are discernible, and the vallies are partially cultivated. Further on advancing towards Candy the surface continues mountainous, but the declivities of the hills are cleared in many places, and the vallies generally, under tillage.—(*Major Johnston, &c.*)

Sambass.—A town on the west coast of Borneo, situated about forty miles up a river of the same name; lat. 1° 3′ N., lon. 109° 25′ E. The houses, as in nearly all the seaport towns of Borneo, consist of timber and bamboos, raised on wooden piles or posts in low swampy morasses. A proneness to piracy on the part of the inhabitants of Sambass had rendered this quarter of Borneo unsafe for European trading vessels, the crews of which were frequently massacred with the most savage barbarity. The place was in consequence attacked by the Phœnix frigate in 1812, but owing to the want of land forces was unsuccessful. A second expedition in 1813, after an obstinate resistance, captured Sambass, and expelled the piratical horde that occupied it.—(*Thorn, Elmore, &c.*)

Samber (*Sambhara, or Sacambhari*).—A Rajpoot town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about fifty-one miles N.N.E. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 26° 53′ N., lon. 74° 57′ E. To the north-east is a salt lake twenty miles long by one and a half broad, from whence a considerable portion of Upper Hindostan is supplied with salt, and from whence during the Mogul government it was carried as far as Benares and Bahar. Every year after the rains the water becomes so strongly impregnated, that when the lake dries up it is found crystallized in large quantities under a layer of mud. It is collected towards the close of the hot season, without having undergone any artificial process; it is then spread out and exposed to the sun for ten or fifteen days, in which space of time it hardens and forms large lumps, which are gathered into heaps; on these a quantity of dry grass is placed and set fire to, which calcines the external surface, and forms a covering sufficiently hard to resist the rain. In this last state it is sold, and reaches the different markets much broken by the jolting of the carriages.

There are many other salt lakes in this quarter of Hindostan, and more especially one to the west of Joudpoor. Indeed, the soil throughout is so impregnated with salt substances that it is very rare to see a hollow or low spot without a saline efflorescence on the surface.—(*J. Grant, J. T. Brown, James Fraser, &c.*)

Sambilang Isles (*or nine islands*).—A cluster of small islets lying off the east-coast of Malacca, opposite to the Perak river; lat. 4° N., lon. 100° 35′ E.

SAMBOANGAN.—A Spanish settlement on the south-western extremity of the island of Magindanao; lat. 6° 45′ N., lon. 122° 10′ E. The town of Samboangan is situated on the banks of a small rivulet that flows into the sea. The number of inhabitants is about 1,000; among which are included the officers, soldiers, and their families. In its environs are several small look-out houses, erected on posts twelve feet high, in all of which a constant guard is kept against the hostilities of the natives, with whom the Spaniards are in a perpetual state of hostility. The fort is very indifferent as a place of defence, and in a state of rapid decay. The houses are erected on posts, are built of bamboos, and covered with mats; and the Spanish inhabitants, in place of attempting to improve the natives in the arts and conveniencies of life, are insensibly sinking down to their condition and adopting their manners. The only edifice of note is the church, which in a Spanish settlement is always good. It is built of stone.

The military force at Samboangan in 1788 consisted of from 150 to 200 soldiers, natives of Manilla, who were as defective in discipline as the fort was in strength. This place is the Botany Bay of the Philippines, particular crimes being punished by banishment to this place; the conduct of the inhabitants, however, is much better than this circumstance would indicate, which is in a great measure owing to the exertions of the priests that are settled among them. The navigators who have accidently called here have been surprised to find the inhabitants, both of Spanish extraction and natives, so well acquainted with European music, more especially Handel's, and country dances, which are here performed on violins, bassoons, and flutes, the orchestra being composed of natives of the island. For this they are also indebted to the priests, who have likewise taught them to dance; a species of agility extremely repugnant to an Asiatic disposition.

The country adjacent to Samboangan is fertile, and the cattle have multiplied so greatly as to be of little value. At this place the Spaniards stop the Chinese junks bound to the eastward. The anchorage before the fort is foul and rocky, but abreast the town it is better. The Spaniards here and their subjects are much infested by piratical prows, which plunder and cut off vessels richly laden, while lying in the harbour, and frequently make descents close to the fort and carry off the inhabitants, whom they sell into slavery.

About A.D. 1755 this fortress was nearly captured by the Sooloos by the following stratagem: one of their sultans, Ameer ul Momenin, came with a numerous retinue to Samboangan, under pretence of being converted, but the plot was discovered, and the sultan with his family sent prisoners to Manilla, where they remained until the capture of that place by the British in 1762, when they were liberated.—(*Mears, Forrest, Sonnerat, &c.*)

SAMEE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles S.W. from Jaloun; lat. 26° 2′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

SAMET SIKHAR.—A mountain in the province of Bahar, on the frontier of Ramghur, and 136 miles south from Boglipoor, on which are situated the temples dedicated to Parswanatha (the twenty-third deified saint of the Jains), and one of the principal Jain sanctuaries in Hindostan. They consist of four large square brick buildings painted white, with a dome in the centre, and four small domes at the four corners. The centre is surmounted by a gilded spire, like the Buddhist temples of Ava, and the domes by trellices of gilt copper. A brick wall surrounds the whole, and at the end is a serai for the accommodation of pilgrims and worshippers.

On an elevated throne inside, covered with brocade, is seated a small black stone image of Parswanatha, sitting cross-legged, with his hands before him, and on his head, fashion-

ed like a turban, are seven expanded heads of the hooded snake, the invariable crest and symbol of Parswanath. The officiating priests have cloths tied over their mouths, under the chin, and fastened at the top of the head, to prevent their swallowing any thing that has life.

The ascent to the Parswanath mountain commences by a winding path, surrounded on all sides by thick jungle, and goes over most difficult ground, broken by ravines and impeded by large mis-shapen rocks. The top is said to tower up to the clouds, terminating in eight jagged peaks. The summit, or part more especially named Samet Sikhar, comprises a small table-land, flanked by twenty Jain temples, stuck on the craggy steeps and different other spots. In form these temples very much resemble an extinguisher, containing within the Padukas or sacred steps. On the south side of the mountain, about half way down, is a very large and handsome flat-roofed temple, containing several figures of Parswanath, cross-legged and with the serpent crown.—(*Col. Wm. Franklin, &c.*)

SAMGAUM (*Syama grama*). — A town in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, seventeen miles N.W. from the town of Nellore; lat. 14° 25′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E.

SAMRAIYOT (*or three hundred peaks*).—A small village in the kingdom of Siam, situated on the west coast of the gulf, about lat. 12° N. All junks bound from Bankok to China or Cochin China, fill up their water here, and then strike across the gulf due east. The sea-coast here is rough and steep.—(*Burney, &c.*)

SAMRODE. — A village, formerly considerable, in the province of Candeish, sixteen miles N. by E. from the foot of the Ajuntee ghaut, and remarkable as the spot where the wreck of Sindia's army encamped after the battle of Assye.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SAMUDRA. — See SIVANA SAMUDRA.

SAMULCOTTAH.—A town and fort in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, twenty-nine miles travelling distance E. by N. from the town of Rajamundry. This is an extensive straggling town, and meanly built, but it contains two Hindoo temples of singular architecture, and bearing evident marks of considerable antiquity. The fort is a large square, with high mud walls, stone gateways, and a wet ditch. Within it are neat barracks and several bungalows, and without there is a small cantonment, where a battalion of Madras infantry is usually stationed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SAMWAR.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles from Oojein, situated on the west bank of the Khaond river. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained above 800 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SANDALWOOD.—See MAGGERI and PERIAPATAM.

SANDALWOOD ISLAND. — A large island in the Eastern seas situated to the south of Floris, about the tenth degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at 100 miles, by thirty the average breadth. The native name is Sumba. It is described as remarkably level, and destitute of any high hill, or even any considerable elevation. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but about A.D. 1800 the natives withdrew their allegiance because the Dutch cut down the sandal-wood trees, believing the existence of a native to be connected with that of each tree. Since then there has been but little external intercourse, and that principally carried on by the way of Endé or Floris. The natives are said to resemble those of the interior of Floris, but with an additional portion of enterprize and ferocity, which frequently stimulate them to attempt the cutting off of coasting vessels. The Buggesses procure here, annually, considerable quantities of

birds'-nests and bees'-wax. Sandalwood island and that of Floris may be considered the westernmost, on which the natives have frizzled hair; those of Sumbhawa and of the islands still more to the west having universally long hair.—(*Malay Miscellanies, &c.*)

Sanderweil.—A town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1816 belonged to the Guicowar; lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 73° 44′ E.; thirty-six miles S.E. from Surat. The S.E. road from Bursa to this place is a pathway leading over hills and vallies covered with jungle, and intersected by numerous streams, mostly without water during the dry season. The teak tree abounds in the jungle, but is of too small a size for any purpose beyond house-building. The Bheels who inhabit this hilly tract are of a more pacific disposition than those to the north and south; but the jungles are much infested by tigers and beasts of prey.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Sanding Isles (*Pulo Sanding.*)—Two small islands situated off the S. W. coast of Sumatra, near the south-eastern extremity of the Nassau or Poggy islands, in which group they are sometimes included. They are both inhabited, and their only remarkable production is the long nutmeg, which grows wild; and some good timber, particularly the kind known by the name of Marbaw. An officer and a few men were landed here in 1769 with a view to the establishment of a settlement, and remained a few months, during which time it rained without cessation. The scheme was subsequently abandoned, as unlikely to answer any good purpose.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

Sandowy.—A town and district in the province of Arracan, 175 miles S.S.E. from the town of Arracan; lat. 18° 10′ N., lon. 94° 5′ E. This place was captured without resistance in May 1825, and was subsequently selected as a head station for a British corps on account of its reputation for salubrity. The cantonments stand on a spot of ground on the right bank of a river which had been well cleared and drained, and the native town in 1827 had much increased both in extent and population.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Sandy.—A small village in the province of Oude, with a large jeel swarming with wild fowl in its vicinity; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E.; twenty-five miles E.S.E. from Furruckabad. From Lucknow to this place the country (in 1824) appeared populous and well cultivated. In the dry season, after the earth and sun have absorbed most of its moisture, part of the jeel is cultivated, while the rest remains covered with grass and aquatic plants.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Sangir Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, situated between the third and fourth degrees of north latitude and the 125th and 126th degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles by ten the average breadth; and it is surrounded by forty-six smaller islands of various dimensions. Viewed from the sea, the surface appears high and well wooded; and the coast has better harbours and is less dangerous from hidden rocks and shoals than most of the Eastern Archipelago. The country is well inhabited, and affords refreshments of various kinds, such as bullocks, hogs, goats, and poultry; and coco-nuts are in such plenty that an oil is expressed from them and exported. Spices are also procured, in which a trade is carried on to Magindanao.

About the middle of the west coast is the town, bay, and harbour of Taroona, opposite to which on the east coast is also a town and harbour called Tabookang, the harbour of which is sheltered by two islands. There are many other harbours towards the south end of the island, along the middle of which runs a ridge of high mountains, terminated to the northward by a lofty volcano, from which there was a great erup-

tion in 1711. This island was formerly under the influence of the Dutch, who maintained a small garrison on it, and made many converts to Christianity, principally by the exertions of the missionaries, who preached in the Malay tongue, and had subordinate black preachers. The islands of Salibabo, Kabruang, and Nanusan, were formerly subject to Sangir, and afterwards came with it under the influence of the Dutch.—(*Forrest, Mears, &c.*)

SANGLEE.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Mortizabad, eight miles N.W. from Merritch. This is a town of considerable extent and strength belonging to the Putwurdun family, where in 1820 Chintamun Row, a discontented jaghiredar, resided in grim repose, his propensity to plundering being restrained by the British government.

SANJORE (*Sanjara*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, named also Sachore, situated at the south-western extremity, about 140 miles N.E. from the gulf of Cutch; lat. 24° 40′ N., lon. 71° 38′ E. The road between this town and Theraud, on the north-western frontier of the Gujerat province, is infested by predatory Baloochy banditti of the Kosa tribe, who render the road impassable without a strong escort. In 1809 the town of Sanjore belonged to the raja of Joudpoor, but the neighbouring country was under no general control, every village having then a separate chief, who plundered wherever he hoped to do so with impunity. In 1821 this place was under Jhallore, one of the principal stations of the Joudpoor government.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

SANKASEER.—A considerable town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Ryebaugh, situated on the left bank of the Hurruncassy, about forty-six miles travelling distance S.W. of Merritch. There is a remarkable temple here, dedicated to Mahadeva, to which the town and lands adjacent are subject, although within the Colapoor territory, being administered by the officiating Brahmins, who inhabit a sort of fort or enclosure, distinct from the body of the place. The fortress of Wullubghur stands on the hill above.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SANKIN.—A town in the province of Allahabad belonging to the petty state of Sumpter, seven miles N.N.E. from the town of Sumpter; lat 25° 54′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.

SANORE.—See SHANOOR.

SANSADARA FALL.—A fall, or rather rapid, in the Nerbudda river, five miles below Mheshwar in Malwa, impassable for large boats and difficult for canoes, which during the hot weather make use of a back-water, deepened for the purpose.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SANSADHARA.—A remarkable dropping cavern in Northern Hindostan, situated in a deep and romantic glen on a branch of the Songh rivulet, among the mountains that form the northern boundary of the Deyrah Doon, seven miles N. by E. from the town of Deyrah. The water from the rock above oozes through the roof in an incessant shower, and has formed by its action innumerable calcareous stalactites of great size and beauty, which have taken the shape of the roots, moss, and other decayed vegetable substances over which the water had passed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SANTI BACHULLY.—A considerable walled village in the Mysore province, situated on a rising ground, thirty-four miles N. by W. from Seringapatam. It contains several Hindoo temples.

SANTIPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river, where the government have a commercial factory and resident, forty-three miles north from Calcutta; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 88° 33′ E.

SANWEER.—A large and regularly-built village in the province of Mal-

wa, division of Oojein, sixteen miles south from the city of Oojein.

SANYASSIGOTTA (*Sanyasicata*).—A subdivision of the Rungpoor district, in the province of Bengal, situated at the north-western extremity, and having in its centre a pergunnah belonging to the Deb raja of Bootan. The town of Sanyasicata derives its name from a Hindoo temple, so called, the origin of which has the following tradition. When the first raja of the Kaycots was building a fortress, the workmen in digging down came upon a religious person underground (a Sanyasi), who was in this manner passing his time in devout retirement and meditation. He was wounded by the pioneers before they discovered him; but he made no complaint, only requesting that they would cover him up again. This was accordingly done, and a convent (akra) for persons of his order built over him.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

SAOILE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, forty miles N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22°46′ N., lon. 73°22′ E.

SAPAROUA ISLE.—One of the small Amboyna isles, about twenty miles in circumference; lat. 3° 40′ S., lon. 28° 40′ E. This island, with that of Noussa Laut, formerly yielded the Dutch East-India Company one-half of the whole cloves exported by the Amboyna government.

SAPATA ISLE (*Pulo Sapata*).—A small elevated barren island in the Eastern seas, thus named by the Portuguese on account of its resemblance to a shoe, which in their language it means, joined with the word pulo, the Malay for an island. In appearance from the sea it is nearly perpendicular, and white like the cliffs of Dover, with innumerable sea fowl continually hovering and screaming over it. Lat. 10° 4′ N., lon. 109° 10′ E.

SAPTARI.—The middle portion of the Muckwanpoor principality, in Northern Hindostan, was partitioned by the Nepaulese into two districts, and placed under two distict functionaries. The first of these comprehends the tract of country called Saptari, which is mostly situated in the low country, bounded on the E. by the Cosi river, and limited on the W. by the Rati. Very little of the hilly country belongs to it, as the divisions of Khatang and Muckwanpoor come low down and meet at Kamal. Its geographical features entirely resemble those of the terriani or low country, and its vegetable productions are in every respect the same. The most remarkable places within the limits of Saptari are Naragari, a small fort on the plain, where the soubah resides; Bhimagari, another and similar place, where he occasionally resides; and Janakpoor, a place celebrated in Hindoo fable. No vestiges remain of former magnificence, if they ever existed.

In 1809 the total revenue collected by the soubah, or superintendant, amounted to 1,27,550 rupees, of which 69,957 rupees arose from land-rent, and fines on marriages, concubines, and adulterers. At Jaleswar, in Mahatari, south from Janakpoor, the raja formerly had a manufactory of saltpetre and gunpowder, and at Sisuya, on the Cosi, there is one iron mine.

The Tharoo caste, resembling in its manners the Gangayi of Morung, composes the greatest portion of the population that are dwellers on the plain. Next to these are about equal parts of impure Bohars and of the military and agricultural tribe of Brahmins called Aniwar, both of which have at different times been sovereigns of the country. Immediately under the hills are many Batars, who speak the Hindi language. The lower hills are occupied by Sringuyas, a ramification of the Limboo tribe, and also by Magars, Rajpoots, and Khas, the first of recent introduction.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

SARAPILLY (*Sarapalli*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, seven miles south from the town of Nellore; lat. 14° 13′ N., lon. 80° 1′ E.

Saraswati River.—A river of Upper Hindostan, which has its source in the hills towards the north-east of Sirhind, from whence it flows in a south-westerly direction into the large province of Rajpootana, where it is absorbed during its progress through that arid country. Vinasana is the place where the Saraswati terminates, losing itself in the sandy desert. It was probably in ancient times of much greater magnitude, as a river of this name marks a geographical division in the Hindoo mythological poems; but there is also another Saraswati, which must have flowed in an opposite direction, as, according to Hindoo notions, it still joins the Ganges and Jumna underground, at Allahabad.

Sarawaddy.—A town and district in Pegu, the first seventy-seven miles N.W. from Rangoon; lat. 17° 40′ N., lon. 95° 43′ E. The surrounding country abounds with teak and other timber forests.

Sarawah.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, province of Pegu, situated on the Irawady, eighty miles N.W. from Rangoon; lat. 17° 30′ N., lon. 95° 52′ E. This is a large and populous place, the head-quarters of his Burmese majesty's war-boats in Pegu. One fish-tank here is farmed by government for a sum equal to about £1,000 per annum.—(*Snodgrass, &c.*)

Sarawak.—A port in the island of Borneo, from whence antimony is exported.

Sarhaut (*Srihat an affluent mart*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, eighty-five miles west from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 86° 51′ E.

Sareila.—A fortified town and pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles S. by W. from Calpee; lat. 25° 46′ N., lon. 79° 38′ E.

Saringhur.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, dependent on Sumbhulpoor, from which it is seventy miles west. The high road from Ruttunpoor passes through it, in consequence of which it suffered much from military exactions while tributary to Nagpoor. It became subject to the British government in 1818, when the assessment in money was reduced from 4,500 to 3,500 Sumbhulpoor rupees.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

Sarjew (*Sareyu*) River.— See Gogra River.

Sarmatta Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about thirty miles in circumference, situated in lat. 8° 10′ S., lon. 129° 15′ E.

Sarowy (*Serohi*).—A division of the Ajmeer province, of which it occupies the western portion, between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Sarowy, containing six mahals, revenue 42,077,437 dams. This circar furnishes 8,000 cavalry and 38,000 infantry." To the north the limits of this district disappear in the great desert; on the south is the province of Gujerat; and on the west the channel of the Banass river and the dominions of the Ameers of Sinde. Until recently, when its internal commotions attracted the attention of the British government, this portion of Hindostan remained quite unknown, and was supposed to be an almost uninhabitable desert; but a more intimate acquaintance with its circumstances has tended considerably to modify that opinion, its evil condition being evidently much more the work of man than of nature. The soil is described as fertile, and, what is of the last importance in India, every where abounding with water; the cattle are also of a most superior quality. Indeed, the capabilities of Sarowy are very great, and its position important, as it commands several strong passes, and is central with respect to the frontier posts of the Bengal and Bombay presidencies, between which it forms a connecting link. A considerable portion of its

former revenue consisted of duties levied on the transit of goods from the ports of Cutch and the northern cities of Gujerat to the cities of Ajmeer and Paulee. The latter town is again becoming the emporium of this branch of the trade of Rajpootana.

The ancient history of this state is little known; but it has been ascertained that it never was politically dependent on Joudpoor or Palhanpoor, although both these states have in modern times laid claim to it, and deeply injured it by their intrigues and depredations. In 1822, when the raja appealed to Calcutta, it was found by Sir David Ochterlony in a state of complete desolation, infested from within by the savage Bheels and Meenas (who form a considerable portion of the population), and from without by the two states above-mentioned, who plundered its territories under various pretences. By these oppressions, joined to internal anarchy, the condition of this principality became so distracted, that it was fast approaching a state of political dissolution, when it excited the commiseration of the British government, as well from motives of humanity as with a view of maintaining tranquillity, which cannot long continue disturbed in one quarter of India without gradually extending to the others.

It being found quite impracticable to restore order, or recover the country from actual ruin, without the decided intervention of the British government, in 1823 a detachment of troops, under intelligent officers, was marched into the country, and the states of Joudpoor and Palhanpoor directed to abstain from hostilities, and refer their claims to the arbitration of the predominating power. The protection afforded by the British government to the petty states of Hindostan is general, not partial; and as no one has a right to injure its neighbour, neither can any one claim merit for refraining from committing injuries, which is a duty it owes to the paramount states. In too many cases the British treaties have given chiefs and princes a power of oppression and tyranny which they would not have dared to exercise under the old political constitution of India, lest it should be followed by conspiracy and dethronement. At present, however, it is to be clearly understood that the protecting state of the federal alliance will not tolerate tyranny in the ruler any more than rebellion in the subject, its object being to preserve these petty communities from the baneful effects of their own folly, perverseness, and ignorance, as well as against the aggressions of external foes. Indeed, Sarowy is so situated with regard to Palhanpoor and other countries subordinate to Bombay, that they cannot long remain quiet if Sarowy be disturbed.—(*Sir David Ochterlony, Capt. Waugh, Capt. Spiers, &c.*)

Sarowy.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated about sixty-two miles from Odeypoor; lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. The Sarowy raja's family is a branch of that of Pertaubghur Deolah, and thence called Deolah Rajpoots. They are Sesodyas of the Rana of Odeypoor's own line, yet were considered independent both of that state and of Odeypoor, having never paid tribute except when it was extorted by the edge of the sword. About ten years ago the real heir of Sarowy was deposed for his crimes, when Row Sheo Singh, the present ruler, was appointed manager. When taken under the British protection in 1823, on account of the exhausted state of the Row's treasury and the impoverished condition of his country, he was excused tribute for four years. The privilege of sanctuary named "sirna" is particularly prevalent among the petty chiefs and their feudatories in this quarter, by whom it is still maintained in its full vigour, although one of the greatest defects of the ancient Rajpoot constitution, now going rapidly to decay. This was once the most frequented road for

commerce between Gujerat and Upper Hindostan, which will probably return, as on the British protection being notified in 1823, many predatory Bheels and Meenas quitted their haunts among the hills and settled on the plains in their former villages. Should war ever ensue between the British government and the Ameers of Sinde, this town will be the central point of union for any operations that may be undertaken against that state by the armies of Madras and Bengal. —(*Sir D. Ochterlony, Capt. Waugh, Capt. Spiers, &c.*)

SARROWLY.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, fifty-one miles N.W. from the town of Goruckpoor; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 82° 47′ E.

SARTUL.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowtee, situated on the right bank of the Newry river. In 1820 it contained about 1,500 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SARUN (*Sarana, an asylum*).—A district in the province of Bahar, situated about the twenty-sixth degree of north latitude. It also comprehends the division of Bettiah, or Chumparun. To the north it is bounded by Goruckpoor and Muckwanpoor; on the south by the Ganges; to the east it has Tirhoot; and on the west the Dewa, or Goggra. In 1784, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, Sarun and Bettiah contained 5,106 square miles, of which area the particular space distinguished by the name of Sarun occupied 2,560 square miles. So late as 1810 a small segment of this district continued on the opposite side of the Great Ganges, immediately above the Dinapoor cantonments, a geographical irregularity which has probably since been rectified.

The Sarun division, for its dimensions, is one of the most prosperous in the British dominions, and has for a long period been in the highest state of cultivation. The land is plentifully supplied with moisture by two large rivers, the Ganges and the Gunduck, besides numerous smaller streams, and the soil, under proper tillage, yields abundantly all the richest productions of the East: it consequently contains scarcely any waste or jungle, so that the farmers are under the necessity of sending their cattle into other quarters to graze. Circar Chumparun, or Bettiah, has not been so fortunate, as it suffered severely during the great famine of 1770, when almost half of its inhabitants are supposed to have perished. Besides this, the zemindars having for many years been deprived of their lands, which were leased to ignorant and rapacious revenue contractors, experienced such oppression, that the majority of the population that survived the famine were obliged to abscond, leaving the country almost a desert. Since that melancholy epocha the zemindars have been re-established by the decennial settlement; many of the ancient inhabitants have returned, and cultivation has been on the increase.

The Bettiah division is situated at the northern extremity, and in 1784, including Chumparun, had an area of 2,546 square miles, which, it is remarkable, was never properly subjugated until after the acquisition of the dewanny by the East-India Company in 1765. The chief towns are Bettiah, Boggah, and Maissy, and the principal river the Gunduck, on the banks of which, and indeed all over the pergunnah, large timber trees for ship-building are procured, and a little to the north firs for masts and spars. The agricultural produce of the Sarun division is of a more valuable description, consisting of opium, tobacco, wheat, barley, flax, peas, linseed, and a small quantity of cotton. The breed of cattle is also excellent, and the bullocks equal to the government standard for the ordnance department, for which purpose, and for the table, they are only rivalled by those of Gujerat. It is remarkable that the natives in the adjoining districts should never have attempted to improve their own breed

of cattle to the same degree of excellence. In 1801 only two zemindaries of any magnitude were held by persons professing the Mahomedan faith, that religion appearing never to have attained a predominance in this quarter of the Bahar province. In 1814 the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to 11,40,560 rupees.

There are few articles of trade manufactured in Sarun, and European merchants never found its cloths to suit the home market. The principal mercantile commodity is saltpetre, a great part of that used throughout Bengal and exported to Europe being the production of Sarun. Government has two factories, one for the provision of cloth of a particular quality, and the other for collecting saltpetre on government account. Good roads are much wanted, as the commercial transactions of the merchants who trade from the south and east to Benares, Oude, and Nepaul, would be greatly facilitated if highways were made and kept in order from Hajypoor to the Goggra river, from Chuprah to the frontiers of Nepaul, and from Maissy to Durrouly.

Almost every village had formerly a mud fort belonging to it, to which the inhabitants resorted when attacked by their neighbours. The remains of these are still visible, but in a ruinous condition. There is not a bridge in the whole district; neither is there any institution where the Hindoo or Mahomedan law is taught. In every large village there are schools, where Hindoo children are instructed in reading, writing, and accounts, for which the parents pay a weekly stipend to the teacher. In 1801, when the Marquis Wellesley issued his statistical queries, the judge and collector each returned their estimates of the population, which agreed in the aggregate of 1,200,000 inhabitants. But a prodigious discrepancy appeared in their respective estimates of the proportion that the Mahomedans bore to the Hindoos, the judge reckoning them one in 500, the collector at one in four. Comparing them with the adjacent districts, they are probably about one in eight.—(*Colebrooke, J. Grant, Boddam, Elphinstone, &c.*)

SARUNGPOOR.—A subdivision of the Malwa province, situated between the twenty-third and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. The town of Sarungpoor is in lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E., on the east side of the Cali Sinde river, and in 1820 contained about 2,000 houses. It is an ancient city, and is said to have been greatly improved by Baz Bahadur, the last Mahomedan prince of Malwa who assumed the title of king. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SASNEE (*sasani, rule*).—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-eight miles N.N.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 45′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. In 1803 the zemindar, being refractory, was expelled after a desperate resistance. The fort was then remarkable for the great height and thickness of its mud ramparts, protected by a double ditch of no great depth, and without a glacis. After its reduction by Lord Lake the works were partially destroyed, and they are now only to be traced in their ruins. The modern town stands without the walls, and in 1820 was extensive and populous.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SASSERAM (*Sahasram*).—A town in the Shahabad district, thirty-four miles south from Buxar; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon. 83° 58′ E. Shere Shah, the Afghan, who expelled the emperor Humayoon (the father of Acber) from Hindostan, was buried here in a magnificent mausoleum, built in the centre of a great reservoir of water. The monument rises from the middle of the tank, which is about a mile in circumference, and bounded on each side by masonry, the descent to the water being by a flight of steps now in ruins. The dome and the rest of the building is of a fine grey stone, at present much discoloured by age and neglect.

This is a large place, partly built

of stone, and contains other Mahomedan remains besides the mausoleum. Among the hills to the south-east, about four miles from Sasseram, is the water-fall of Deocoond (Devacunda), much resorted to as a sacred bathing-place by the Hindoos at one season of the year, and at all seasons the haunt of fakeers, who have their cells in the neighbouring rocks. For eight months of the year, however, it is destitute of water. Among these hills are still to be seen the ruins of bridges, and other indications of a former local importance. —(*Hodges, Fullarton, &c.*)

SATAHUNG.—The capital of a small rajaship in Hindostan, at present subject to the Nepaulese; lat. 28° 7′ N., lon. 83° 42′ E., seventy-nine miles W.N.W. from Catmandoo. This place stands on a hill, and formerly contained 250 thatched huts, besides the brick castle of the chief; whose whole territories (according to native report) contained 1,500 houses, and yielded a revenue of 2,000 rupees.

SATARA.—A strong hill fortress in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-six miles south from Poona, and 146 miles travelling distance from Bombay; lat. 17° 42′ N., lon. 74° 12′ E. The name signifies seventeen, being the number of walls, towers, and gates it possessed or was supposed to possess. It is situated midway between the Krishna and Tourna Ghaut, and stands on the western point of a hill rising from a base about seven miles in length from east to west. The hill on which the fort is placed is about 800 feet high, scarped perpendicularly near the summit, so as to present a solid wall of rock on all sides. At no great distance from Satara are many hill forts of great natural strength, the whole territory being in a manner studded with strong positions. Among these may be enumerated Chundun, Wundun, Nangherry, Wyratghur, Pandooghur, Kummulghur, Kunzulghur, and Kelinga.

The town or pettah of Satara lies at the bottom of the mountain, and in 1820 consisted of one long street of tiled huts, built partly of stone and partly of mud or unburned bricks, without even a Hindoo temple, or any public edifice of note. At that date a space had been cleared in the centre of the town, and preparations were going on for the erection of a new palace for the raja, the ancient residence of the family having long fallen to ruin, and the two small houses in the fort being quite unfit for his accommodation. In the mean time the raja occupied a dwelling of three stories high not far distant. The cantonments of the troops and habitation of the British resident were situated about two miles to the east of the town. The vale of Satara is one of the most pleasing tracts in the Deccan, rich in rice cultivation, and clumps of fine trees clustered around the villages. It stands within the influence of the sea-breeze, and from that circumstance, combined with its extraordinary elevation, enjoys a climate rarely to be found in similar latitudes. The sword of Sevajee is still preserved at Satara, where it is exhibited to strangers. It is a cut-and-thrust sword of Genoese fabrication.

Satara was taken from the sovereign of Bejapoor in 1651 by Sevajee, the founder of the Maharatta empire; and here for more than a century his descendants continued imprisoned by their nominal deputies the Peshwas, who nevertheless treated them with great respect. On succeeding to that office the Peshwa repaired to Satara, and received the khelaut or dress of investiture from his prisoner's hands; and when he took the field, he always went through the formality of having an audience to take leave of his pageant master. The country circumjacent to Satara also benefited by his residence, as it enjoyed exemption from military depredation; and whenever any chief entered its limits all the insignia of royalty were laid aside, and the nagara or great drum of the

empire ceased to beat. The father of the late raja was a private silladar, or commandant of horse; but being unfortunately of the genuine blood of Sevajee, on the demise of his predecessor he was exalted from a state of happy obscurity to the splendid misery of a throne and a prison. He died in May 1808, on which event the reigning Peshwa, Bajerow, proceeded to Satara to superintend his obsequies, and the investiture of his successor. After performing these solemnities, and assisting at the ceremonies of the young raja's marriage, he returned to Poona his capital, having previously made arrangements calculated to improve the condition of his prisoner.

In 1810 the Peshwa notified to the British minister the probability of the Satara raja's visiting Poona, and represented that in such an event he hoped the resident would pay the compliment that was due to his (the Peshwa's) sovereign, by waiting on him at the palace, and afterwards giving him an entertainment at the residency. Neither of these occurrences ever happened; but the circumstance of the Peshwa's wishing the British representative to hold public intercourse with the Satara raja, certifies how completely the inherent jealousy of the Maharatta character had been subdued by the persevering and honourable conduct which it had experienced on the part of the British government. It also proved how mildly in recent times state prisoners are dealt with by native politicians, who have a thorough reliance on its good faith. To a European diplomatist it appears an anomaly in politics, that intercourse should be held with a sovereign whom the British government did not acknowledge; but the events of the last twenty years have produced so fundamental a change in the ancient relations of the Indian powers, that many of their rights and privileges had virtually become annulled, and certainly in a great degree forgotten.

On the expulsion of the Peshwa in 1818, the British government determined to re-instate the Satara raja in a portion of his ancestors' dominions, and accordingly a certain tract of country was reserved for that purpose, and now constitutes the Satara dominions. This tract on the west is bounded by the western ghaut mountains; on the south by the Warna and Krishna rivers; on the north by the Neera and Beema rivers; and on the east by the frontier of the Nizam's dominions. The whole area occupies a surface of about 11,000 square miles; but of the country thus assigned, lands to the value of three lacks per annum by old jaghiredars, whose allegiance had been transferred to the British government, and as much more had been alienated. In 1821 the total net revenues of the Satara raja amounted to 15,60,000 rupees; and the total charges to 14,02,000 rupees, leaving a surplus of 1,77,840 rupees.

The principal towns are Satara, Punderpoor, Bejapoor, Mahabillysir, Merritch, and Huttany, besides many hill-forts, which if resolutely defended are almost impregnable. Some of these, however, have been dismantled, and the works of others suffered to fall into decay, but the strength of their former sites will always remain. The management of the raja's territories, and superintendence of his affairs, was in the first instance assigned to Captain Grant, until the country became thoroughly tranquilized, which gradually taking place, in April 1821, when the raja Nur Narrain having attained the age of twenty-one, was invested with the uncontrolled administration of his dominions. — (*Fullarton*, *Captain Grant*, *Tone*, *Prinsep*, *Elphinstone*, &c.)

SATGONG (*Salgrama, the seven villages*).—A town in Bengal, formerly of some note, but now inconsiderable, situated on a small creek of the river Hooghly, about four miles to the N.W. of the town of Hooghly. In 1566, and probably later, this was a large trading city, in which Euro-

pean merchants had their factories for procuring the productions of Bengal; and at that date the Satgong river was capable of floating small vessels.—(*Rennell, &c.*)

Satimangalum.—A town in the northern district of Coimbatoor, forty-six miles N. by E. from the town of Coimbatoor; lat. 11° 31′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E. The fortress at this place is large, and constructed of cut stone, and in A.D. 1801 had a garrison, but contained few houses. The pettah or town is scattered over the plain at some distance, and at the above date contained only 600 houses. In the town and neighbourhood cotton goods are manufactured from the cotton raised in the surrounding country. Here is a temple of considerable repute dedicated to Vishnu.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Satpoora Mountains.—An extensive range of hills in the Deccan, situated between the Nerbudda and Tuptee, forming the southern boundary of the valley of the first, and the northern of the valley of the Tuptee. It extends along from near Surat, where it approaches the northern termination of the Western Ghauts to lat. 77° east, and is almost wholly occupied by the Bheel tribes. In appearance they differ from the Vindhyan mountains, having bold romantic outlines rising into lofty peaks, but in geological structure they are similar. The highest peak is about 2,500 feet above the level of the sea, and consists of amygdaloid and greenstone (which composes more than half the hill) and at the top basalt.—(*Jas. Fraser, Malcolm, &c.*)

Sattagaul.—A fortified village in the province of Coimbatoor, fifty-two miles travelling distance W. by S. from the city of Mysore. It stands near the banks of the Cavery, about three miles above the point where the river forks off to form the celebrated island of Sivana Samudra.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Saubermutty River.—A river in the province of Gujerat, that issues from the Dhaubur Lake, twenty miles north of Doongurpoor, and from thence flows in a southerly direction towards the gulf of Cambay, passing Ahmedabad on its route. Including windings, its course may be estimated at 200 miles.

Saugree.—A small independent state in Northern Hindostan, situated on the banks of the Sutuleje, between Bhujee and Koomharsein.

Saugur (*Sagara*).—A large town in the province of Malwa, seventy-four miles E.S E. from Seronge; lat. 23° 48′ N., lon. 78° 47′ E. This place was very little known, although so near to the British frontier in Bundlecund, until taken possession of by the detachment under General Marshall in 1818, when it was discovered to be of considerable magnitude, and exhibited every appearance of an opulent and flourishing city, although situated in the heart of the Pindary country.

Saugur was originally ceded by the Peshwa, by the treaty of Poona, the manager of it, Benaick Row, having sheltered the Pindaries, and openly suffered levies to be made in the town for the Raja of Nagpoor. It surrendered without resistance, and soon after all the hills-forts and strong holds, sixteen in number, were given up without firing a shot, and the inhabitants in general appeared satisfied with the change. By taking actual possession of Saugur, the security of the adjacent country was not only increased, but, by superior management, the hereditary jaghiredar (Nana Govind Row of Calpee) received three times the sum ever before realized by him from the rents. The past receipts of this territory have been estimated at 6,98,000 rupees, out of which certain portions are to be paid to Nana Govind and Benaick Row. The entire occupation of this strong country has rendered it necessary to station part of the military force required to overawe Central Hindostan within the limits of the Saugur district.—(*The*

Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Public Journals, &c.)

SAUTGHUR (*Satghadam*).—A town in the Barramahal, 106 miles W. by S. from Madras; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 78° 48′ E. The situation of this place is picturesque, being surrounded by rocks covered in part with brushwood. The nabob of the Carnatic has a garden here, which is considered one of the best in the country; but like most Eastern gardens is totally devoid of taste or beauty. The trees are planted regularly, and the water is conducted in small channels to the root of each. In this neighbourhood the agave americana grows in great profusion. The surrounding hills are covered with large stones, among which grow many small trees and shrubs, and also a few tamarind and banyan trees of great age and size. The ghaut or pass beyond this place and approaching Mysore has been widened and levelled since the conquest of the province, and artillery can now ascend with little difficulty; but the tranquillity of the whole south of India, now under the Madras presidency, has rendered this road principally important for commercial purposes.

SAUTNEIR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, thirty-two miles N.N.E. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 36′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E.

SAVANORE.—See SHAHNOOR.

SAUWUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, sixty miles S.E. from the city of Ajmeer; lat. 25° 11′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E.

SAVU ISLE.—An island twenty miles long in the Eastern Seas, subordinate to the Dutch factory at Coopang, on the island of Timor; lat. 10° 35′ S., sixty miles west of Rotti.

This island is of a stony, barren nature. Small quantities of maize, kachang, and cotton are raised, but in dry seasons they greatly depend on the sugar of the Lontar palm. Their wild and domestic animals, religion, and customs, a . . . same as on Timor. Wax, sandal-wood, and edible birds'-nests are exported, and during the Dutch old government, slaves: but this commerce was interdicted in 1812 by the British government. In 1820 the population was estimated at 5,000 persons, governed by four chiefs, who acknowledged the supremacy of the Dutch, and sometimes contributed military assistance in their Timorese wars. A Dutch interpreter is usually stationed here.—(*Malay Miscellanies, Thorn, &c.*)

SAWA.—A good sized town in the province of Ajmeer, about ten miles south from the fortress of Chitore. In 1824 it was surrounded by walls, and contained some handsome pagodas and two beautiful bowlies.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SAWUN.—A town in the province of Malwa, six miles travelling distance from Munassa; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained about 300 houses.

SAWUNSWARREE.—See WARREE.

SAYMBRUMBACUM (*Swayama Brahma.*)—A small town in the Carnatic, seventeen miles west from Madras; lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 80° 4′ E. At this place there is a remarkable tank, eight miles in length by three in breadth, which has not been formed by excavation like those in Bengal, but by shutting up with an artificial bank an opening between two natural ridges of ground. In the dry season the water is let out in small portions for irrigation, and the quantity is said to be sufficient to supply the lands of thirty-two villages (should the rains fail), in which 5,000 persons are employed in agricultural pursuits.

SEALKOTE.—A town in the province of Lahore, seventy-two miles N. by E. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 35′ N., lon. 74° 20′ E. This was a place of considerable note early in the sixteenth century, being fre-

quently mentioned by the emperor Baber in his personal memoirs.

SECHANG ISLES (or *Dutch Islands*).—A group of islands at the mouth of the Siam river, where vessels proceed to complete their water and get ready for sea. The larger isles are covered with wood, but some of the smaller are bare rocks. The two largest present vestiges of former cultivation, and on both a few miserable inhabitants are still to be seen; lat. 13° 12′ N., lon. 101° E.

SECUNDERABAD.—See HYDERABAD.

SECUNDERMALLY.—A spot in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, about four miles south from the city of Madura, believed by the natives of the vicinity to have been the burial-place of Alexander the Great.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SECUNDRA (*Alexandria*).—A considerable walled village in the province of Delhi, thirty-two miles S.E. from the city of Delhi; 28° 28′ N., lon. 77° 33′ E. It stands in a wilderness of Dhak jungle, which extends in this quarter over a large tract of the Doab.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SECUNDRA.—A town in the province of Agra, seven miles north from the city of Agra, of which in former times it was probably a large suburb. It is now an uninhabited collection of ruins. Of these several noble gateways, part of the walls of a palace, a coss pillar, and various other architectural fragments, are still in a tolerable condition. The only remaining entire structure is the celebrated mausoleum of the emperor Acber, a vast pyramidical pile of arched galleries, tier over tier, with small cupola pavilions at intervals. It is certainly, in point of magnificence, the most remarkable of all the Mogul monuments, and scarcely yields to any in the elaborate details of its marble trellices and relievos, but it is fantastical in its design, and in the contrasted colours of its materials.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SECUNDRA.—A town in the province of Agra, forty-four miles N.E. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 78° 16′ E.

SEDASHEOGHUR (*Sedasivaghar*).—A maritime town in the Canara province, forty-five miles N.N.W. from Onore; lat. 14° 51′ N., lon. 74° 9′ E.

SEEAH.—A large village in the province of Malwa, principality of Dewass, which in 1820 contained about 227 houses; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 76° 11′ E.

SEEASSEE ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archipelago. It is a high island and well wooded, but cleared and inhabited in many places, and supplied with water. It yields many cowries.

SEEBAH (*Siva*).—The capital of a small mountainous district in the province of Lahore, situated about sixty-five miles E.N.E. from Amritsir; lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. It stands on the brink of a rivulet, and is fortified.

SEEBEEROO ISLE.—An island lying off the west coast of Sumatra, situated principally between the first and second degrees of south latitude, and the ninety-eighth and ninety-ninth of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at seventy miles, by ten the average breadth.

This island is inhabited by the Mantawey race, and the inhabitants both of Si Pora and the Poggy Isles consider it as their parent country; but they are, notwithstanding, generally engaged in hostilities. The inhabitants are distinguished only by some variety in the patterns with which their skins are tattooed. This island is rendered conspicuous from a distance by a volcanic mountain.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

SEEBGUNGE (*Sivaganj*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty-four miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 3′ N., lon. 89° 12′ E.

SEEDLY (*Sinduli*).—A Gorkha fortress in Northern Hindostan, district of Muckwanpoor, to the possession

of which that people attach considerable importance, as commanding the terriani or low country; lat. 27° 9′ N., lon. 85° 55′ E., sixty-eight miles S.E. from Catmandoo.

SEEDAPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, seventy miles S.E. from the city of Bejapoor; lat. 16° 28′ N., lon. 76° 44′ E.

SEEDOURA.—A considerable town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, thirty-four miles N.W. from the town of Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 19′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E. Most of the houses here are built with brick, and the surrounding country is fertile and populous.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

SEEHORE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-two miles west from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 21° 44′ N., lon. 72° 3′ E.

SEEKREE.—The capital of a little jaghiredar in the province of Delhi, who holds a small barony under the British government, under the larger one of Bullumghur; lat. 28° 20′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E., twenty-six miles south from Delhi.

SEEKUR KHUTTREE.—A small village in Northern Hindostan, principally inhabited by Brahmins, situated about 1,500 yards from the base of a hill four miles west from the fortress of Muckwanpoor; lat. 27° 27′ N., lon. 84° 57′ E.

SEELAJAN.—A town in Northern Hindostan, eleven miles S.W. from Rampoor, in Bussaher; lat. 31° 18′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E.

SEELONE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-four miles W. by S. from Punnah; lat. 24° 43′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E.

SEEMLEAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 belonged to the Raja of Rutlam, and contained about 300 houses; lat. 22° 27′ N., lon. 75° 9′ E.

SEENA RIVER.—This river has its source about twenty miles W.N.W. from Ahmednuggur, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction; and after a winding course of about 200 miles, falls into the Beema, the bulk of which it nearly doubles by the accession of its waters.

SEEORE (*or Sehore*).—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-two miles W. by S. from Bopaul; lat. 23° 15′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E. This place stands on the banks of the little river Roota Sein, and is surrounded by a large grove of mango and other trees. The soil is a black mould, but not much cultivated. In 1820 it belonged to the Nabob of Bopaul, and was the residence of the British agent for conducting the intercourse with that state. He also has charge of a number of petty chiefs and Grassias on the right bank of the Nerbudda and east of the Cali Sinde, besides managing the districts of Birseah and Shujawulpoor and superintending Omutwara.—(*Hunter, Malcolm, &c.*)

SEERA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, forty-five miles east from the town of Bhatneer; lat. 29° 28′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E.

SEERACOT TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-nine miles N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 49′ N., lon. 80° 14′ E., 6,924 feet above the level of the sea.

SEERCHEE.—A small principality in the province of Gujerat, somewhere between Theraud and Sanjore, in 1820 claimed as tributary to Joudpoor, but the raja then maintained his independence.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

SEERDHUNA.—A town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the celebrated Somroo Begum; lat. 29° 12′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E., forty-seven miles N.N.E. from Delhi.

This is the capital of a small principality twenty miles long by twelve in breadth, which with the town was assigned by Nudjiff Khan to Somroo, and on his death in 1776 was delivered over to the Begum Somroo, on condition of her keeping up a force of three battalions of infantry. Somroo's real name was Walter

Reinhiard, born of obscure parents in the electorate of Treves, from whence he entered early into the French service, taking the name of Summer, which the natives of Hindostan pronounce Somroo. He came afterwards to Bengal, and entered a Swiss corps in Calcutta, from which in eighteen days he deserted and fled to the upper provinces, where he served for some time as a private trooper in the cavalry of Sefdar Jung, nabob of Oude, and father to Shuja ud Dowlah. This service he also quitted, and after wandering about for some time, at length entered the service of Gregory, an Armenian, then high in favour with Cossim Ali, the nabob of Bengal, in which station in 1763 he massacred the English prisoners at Patna. He afterwards deserted Cossim Ali, and successively served Shuja ud Dowlah, the Jaut Raja Jowahir Singh, the Raja of Jeypoor, and again the Jaut Raja, whom he quitted once more for Nudjiff Khan, in whose service he died A.D. 1776. His corps of infantry was continued after his death in the name of his son, and a favourite concubine named Zeib ul Nissa Begum, but better known in Hindostan by the designation of Somroo Begum. When the tide of conquest brought her small principality (in 1803) within the limits of the British empire, she managed with such address, that by the conditions of the treaty her territories were exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil power, to the great obstruction of all executive measures of police. Her property in ready money, which is considerable, is mostly invested in the government funds, and until lately she resided mostly at Delhi, where she was protected by the British functionaries, and a great favourite with the emperor.

The town of Seerdhuna is a populous and thriving place, with a spacious new gunge, but without any other distinguishing feature. Near it is an extensive mud fort, containing the Begum's arsenal, and a large Hindostany house, where the commandant of her forces resides; the rest of the area being chiefly occupied by mud buildings. There is also another old citadel near the cantonments, of a smaller size, but more formidable construction, but now abandoned. In 1820 she began to feel the infirmities of age, being then about sixty-seven, and though she still retained her palace at Delhi, she resided mostly at her own capital, where she has a good house, built after the English fashion. In its rear are extensive ranges of stables for her stud, which is numerous, and to the north is a spacious entrenched cantonment for her battalions. In 1824 she had a Roman Catholic priest for her chaplain, and had began to build a handsome church at Seerdhuna. In 1827, along with the other chiefs of the province, she paid her respects to Lord Amherst at Delhi. Her district in respect to cultivation will probably bear a comparison with almost any tract of the same dimensions throughout Hindostan, and her internal management was noticed by the magistrate in 1816 as highly commendable. At that date it still continued exempted from the jurisdiction of the British civil and criminal courts.—(*Scott, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, Col. Franklin, Public MS. Documents, Ker, &c.*)

Seerpoor (*Sirapura*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajshahy, seventy-four miles N.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 89° 20′ E.

Seerpoor.—A considerable town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar; lat. 21° 20′ N., lon. 74° 55′ E., ninety miles west from Boorhanpoor.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Seerwul.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, twenty-eight miles S.E. from Poona; lat. 18° 8′ N., lon. 74° 10′ E.

Seetacoond (*Sitacund, the pool of Sita*).—A remarkable hot well, with an adjacent village in the province of Bengal, district of Chittagong, situated about seventeen miles north from

Islamabad; lat. 22° 37′ N., lon. 91° 30′ E.

SEETAMOW (*or Seetamhow*).—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 2,000 houses; lat. 24° 2′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah, which yields an annual revenue of 150,000 rupees to its raja, out of which a tribute of 60,000 rupees is paid to Sindia.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SEETAPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, nine miles distant from Omarcah. In 1820 it contained about 250 houses, and belonged to the British government.

SEHAJPOOR (*or Sohagepoor*).—A town in the province of Candeish, thirty miles east from Hussingabad, reported to be the site of Sonitpura, to which Munjah, the uncle of the celebrated Bhoj Raj, removed the seat of government from Oojein or Dhar. Several figures with curled wigs and also the remains of a colossal statue furnished with similar decorations are still extant; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 10′ E.—(*Erskine, &c.*)

SEHARA.—A village with a spacious serai in the province and district of Agra, situated about eight miles west from the city of Agra.

SEHDINE.—The chief town of a small district in Ava, situated on the Aeng road from Shembeghewn, on the Irawady to Arracan. During the British invasion it was burned to the ground by some banditti.—(*Trant, &c.*)

SEHORE.—See SEEORE.

SEHWAUN.—A town and district in the province of Sinde, intersected by the Indus, and situated between the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. The soil is sandy and but little cultivated, although watered by one of the largest rivers in the world. The town of Sehwaun stands on the west bank of the Indus, in lat. 26° 11′ N., lon. 68° 7′ E., about sixty-five miles N.N.W. from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, near the confluence of an Afghanistan river named the Arul and the Indus, which here in the rainy season form a jeel or shallow lake.

SEIKS.—See LAHORE PROVINCE.

SEIK STATES.—Almost the whole northern quarter of the Delhi province is occupied by Seik principalities under the protection of the British government; for on the conquest of this portion of Hindostan, it was not deemed expedient to establish a judicial tribunal within the territories of these petty chiefs, the Bengal presidency having always been averse to any interference with their internal concerns and administration; the management of the police was consequently left entirely to themselves.

From the moment the Cis Sutulujian Seiks were released from all dread of Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore's encroachments, they began to entertain new fears and jealousies; for although they sought the British protection, they never wished for a stationary protective force, their aim being only to deter that chieftain from further incursions by the terror of the British name. Their first solicitations for protection were rejected and the detachment was marched to Ludeeanna, when some of them had not only recovered from their fears, but had greatly benefited by the bounty of Runjeet. By some we were considered uninvited, unexpected, and unwelcome guests; but they did not dare to refuse what they had once solicited, and as there were many who still dreaded the future visits of the Lahore Raja, Jodh Singh was the only chief who declined attending on the advance of Col. Ochterlony's brigade. By the British declaration of protection they obtained all they then desired, and would have wished to be left in every other respect at large, to prey on each other; but had the protecting force been withdrawn, Runjeet would soon have discovered pretexts for war, and while the British government would have been subjected to all the expense and danger, these chiefs would have enjoyed

all the immediate delights of rapine, plunder, and devastation, with a prospectus of indemnification for their services by grants of territory in the Punjab, when conquered by the British armies.

When all these enchanting visions were dissipated by the treaty concluded with Runjeet Singh, and a force stationed at Ludeeanna, at once to check his proceedings, and control their own feuds and predatory habits, they became apprehensive of something mysterious, especially as they perceived no benefit likely to accrue to the British government, heard no demand for tribute, or any exaction that could account for such unexampled disinterestedness. Unable to resolve the difficulty, they began to suspect that the power and the inclination to exercise it would not be long wanting, and that the protection of their country would terminate in its annexation to the British dominions.

Among all the lower classes of their subjects this consummation is earnestly looked for, and anxiously expected, and the suspicion of its approach is frequently exposed by the jealousy of the chiefs, who are yet constrained by the force of truth to acknowledge, that the occasional interference of the British government has proved a blessing. If there be still some who think otherwise, it is only such who, possessing the means, would gratify their inclinations to the commission of rapine and injustice, and it can inspire no very serious regret that persons of such dispositions are restrained from the indulgence of their evil passions. The coercive measures executed by the British government to compel the restitution of property to the lawful owner has only excited the grief of the aggressors, and met with little sympathy; while the justice and disinterestedness of the transaction has been openly and loudly applauded, or beheld with silent wonder.

The real state of the case is, that these proud and irascible chiefs are glad to appeal to the unbiassed arbitration of a third party, who, by the intervention of a salutary authority, soothes that pride which would have flown to arms in support of their own villages, although they knew their claims to be unreasonable, their cause unjust, and their means of resistance totally unable to cope with the superior power of their antagonist. There are some still hostile to British interference in the control of their administration, because, under the name of internal independence, they hope with impunity to rob their relations and dependents, and, without the risk of investigation, to annihilate the existence of all property unless belonging to themselves. From some of these petty chieftains on the south-east side of the Sutuleje, holding lands also on the opposite shore, Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore claimed feudal military assistance, which to a certain degree was acquiesced in by the British government, although their attendance might have been interdicted had it involved any political object. By some of these little potentates duties are levied on the rafts of timber floated down the Jumna, but the whole amount has never exceeded 5,000 rupees.

In A.D. 1814 Sir David Ochterlony made a tour among the petty Seik states under British protection, which he found tranquil and comparatively prosperous, exhibiting a striking contrast to their prior state of turbulence and distraction. For this they are indebted to the detachment stationed at Ludeeanna, which guards their chieftains from external violence, as well as from their own remorseless passions of private revenge and rancorous hatred, which would burst forth with redoubled fury were the presence of the coercive power withdrawn. In 1822 the British government formally declared its right, as lord paramount, to the succession of such chiefs in the protected Seik territories as may escheat from the want of legal heirs, no compensation whatever being derived from the expense and trouble of protecting them.—(*Sir D. Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SELANG ISLE.—A very small island lying off the south coast of Batchian, one of the Moluccas, with which it forms a good harbour; lat. 0° 48′ S., lon. 127° 40′ E.

SEMANAGUR.—A town in the province of Oude, forty-one miles north from Khyrabad; lat. 28° 4′ N., lon. 80° 40′ E.

SEMAO ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated off the south-western extremity of Timor, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by ten the average breadth. The passage between Simao and Timor is always navigable with deep water, and affords shelter to ships during the strength of the westerly monsoon. This island is of considerable extent, moderately elevated, and subordinate to the Dutch factory at Coopang on Timor. The principal articles of trade are wax, sandal-wood, edible birds'-nests, and, until prohibited by the British government, slaves.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

SEMARIAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 belonged to the British government, and contained about 1,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SEMLIA.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Sepra river, thirteen miles from Dewass; lat. 22°44′ N., lon. 76°8′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the raja of Dewass, and contained about 200 houses.

SEMROOL.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated three miles north of a ghaut or pass of the same name, one of the principal roads from Indore, Oojein, &c. into the Deccan by Asserghur, Boorhanpoor, &c. It belongs to Holcar, and in 1820 contained 200 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SENGAUNAH.—A town in the province of Agra, built of stone, and situated on the top of a hill of purplish rock about 600 feet high, 100 miles S.W. from Delhi; lat. 28°6′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E.

SENWAHO.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventy-three miles N.E. from Seronge; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 78° 48′ E.

SEOUNY.—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-four miles N.E. by N. from Nagpoor; lat. 22°3 N., lon. 79° 35′ E.

SERA (*Sira*).—A town and district in the Mysore raja's territories, ninety-two miles N. by E. from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 44′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E.

This place was first conquered by the Bejapoor Mahomedan dynasty in A.D. 1644, and was afterwards for a short time the seat of a Mussulmaun principality, which ruled a considerable extent of country, and was at its greatest prosperity under Dilawur Khan, immediately before it was conquered by Hyder, at which time, according to native report, it contained 50,000 houses. Since that period it suffered so many calamities from Tippoo and the Maharattas that in 1800 it scarcely contained 3,000 houses; but in 1819 it had benefited by the long tranquillity it had enjoyed from 1799. The principal street is long and wide, but the generality of the habitations are no better than huts, composed of red earth and roofed with tile. The Jumma Musjeed is a respectable edifice of hewn stone. Adjoining the town is the fort, of which the outer ditch and ramparts enclose a sort of pettah. The citadel within contains the remains of the palace, and is one of the most regular works in India of native construction, with a wet ditch and remarkably fine glacis. To the north of the fort is a noble reservoir for the irrigation of the adjacent lands.

The declination of the country, proceeding northwards from Bangalore, is very perceptible. At Sera, on the high ground near the Mahomedan mausoleum, the height, by barometrical measurement, has been estimated at 2,223 feet above the level of the sea; which, in the distance of eighty-four miles gives a

descent of about 500 feet. The climate here is such that there seldom falls as much rain as is required to raise a full crop of rice, the cultivation consisting principally of transplanted raggy, wheat, jola, and other articles that want less water. The soil about Sera contains common salt, and on that account is favourable to the growth of coco-nut trees, and the grand staple for exportation is copra, or dried kernel of the coco-nut. Plantations of betel-nut are also to be met with in the neighbourhood of Sera; in the uncultivated parts of the district the wild date is the prevailing tree.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, Heyne, Moor, &c.*)

SERAI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles south from Teary; lat. 24° 19′ N., lon. 78° 46′ E.

SERAJEGUNGE. — A considerable commercial mart in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, situated on the Jhinayi river, near its junction with the Jhinayi. It appears to have arisen since Major Rennell's survey in 1784, and is the greatest place of trade in this corner of Bengal.—(*F. Buchanan, D. Scott, &c.*)

SERAMPOOR (*Sri Rama pura*).—A Danish settlement in the province of Bengal, situated on the west side of the Hooghly river, about twelve miles above Calcutta; lat. 22° 45′ N., lon. 88° 26′ E. This place extends about a mile along the banks of the river, and has a pleasing effect viewed from the river, but the breadth is very small, and the whole is environed by the British territories. It is kept beautifully clean, and looks more like a European town than Calcutta or any of the neighbouring stations. It is without fortifications, and has only a small battery for saluting: yet it has been a very profitable settlement to the subjects of his Danish majesty, principally by the facilities it afforded to the British merchants of Calcutta to carry on a trade during the late war, under the cover of the Danish flag, for the use of which they paid a commission. Ships of burthen cannot come close up to the town on account of a shoal lower down, but labour in this province is so cheap, that the expense of conveying the goods by boats adds little to the prime cost. Here also insolvent debtors from Calcutta found an asylum from whence they could set their creditors at defiance, for even while the colony was in our possession on the breaking out of hostilities with Denmark, the king's writ did not extend to Serampoor.

This town is the head-quarters of the missionaries delegated from Europe for the purpose of converting the natives of Hindostan to the Christian religion, and here they have established a printing press, where the Scriptures have been published in an astonishing variety of languages. They also conduct a college for the education of native Christian youths, without excluding Hindoos or Mahomedans. The total revenues accruing from all sources between the first of May 1813 and the 30th of April 1814 amounted to 13,231 rupees.—(*Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SERAMPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, 107 miles west from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 86° 24′ E.

SERAN. — A village in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, about two marches or twenty-two miles higher up that river than Rampoor, the capital of Bussaher; lat. 31° 30′ N., lon. 77° 37′ E. It stands on a hill three miles from the banks of the Sutuleje, above which it is elevated 4,500 feet, and 7,280 above the sea. It is the summer residence of the Bussaher raja, whose house is high, and built in the Chinese fashion, the prevailing one in these mountainous tracts. Three miles distant, near the Sutuleje, are hot springs. Formerly human sacrifices were offered at a remarkable temple, sacred to Bheema Cali, the patroness of Bussaher. From hence there is a route leading to

Mantallar Garna, a Chinese town, but the roads are described as leading over ledges of rock projecting over tremendous depths, and almost impracticable even for foot passengers. —(*Public Journals, Capt. Hodgson, Gerards, &c.*)

SERANGANI ISLES.—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, situated about five leagues from the southern extremity of Magindanao, and between the fifth and sixth degrees of north latitude. The largest, named Hummock Isle, is about thirty miles, and the next about twenty-five miles in circumference, and there is another of inferior extent, the principal islands being three in number.

Hummock Isle, on which the raja resides, is very fertile, and produces most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, mangoes, sour oranges, limes, jacks, plantains, coco-nuts, and also rice, sugar-canes, sago, sweet potatoes, tobacco, Indian corn, and honey. Ships passing these isles carry on a brisk trade with the inhabitants for goats, poultry, and other refreshments, which are to be had in abundance. The principal article of export is bees'-wax.

The commodities most in request among the natives are white or printed cottons, such as loose gowns or jackets, coloured handkerchiefs, clasp knives, razors, and bar iron. Metal buttons are also much in demand, and a coat is soon stripped. The inhabitants speak the same language, and are of the same description as those on the sea-coast of Magindanao, being complete Malays, both in appearance and disposition. They have canoes and also larger boats, armed with small brass cannon, and like other natives of the Eastern isles, are much addicted to piracy. Their prows are covered with an awning of split bamboos, and can contain and conceal a great many men. The Dutch East-India Company claim a sovereignty over these islands, but do not appear to have exercised any of its functions, or established any settlement on them.—(*Capt. Hunter, Forrest, &c.*)

SERBAI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles S. by W. from Banda; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 80° 15′ E.

SERINAGUR DISTRICT.—See GURWAL.

SERINAGUR (*sri nagara, the city of abundance*).—A town in Northern Hindostan, the former capital of the Gurwal province, thirty-eight miles E.N.E. from Hurdwar; lat. 30° 11′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E. This place occupies the centre of a valley, and was at one time three-fourths of a mile in length, and of an elliptical form; but since the encroachments of the Alacananda, the earthquake of 1803, and the Gorkha invasion, it has been in a very ruinous condition. The inhabitants consist chiefly of the descendants of emigrants from the low countries. The Alacananda river enters the valley near a village named Seerkote. Its course here is nearly east and west, and the breadth of the channel from bank to bank about 250 yards, but in the dry season the stream does not occupy above 100 yards. At the western extremity of the valley the current strikes with violence against the rocky base of a mountain, near to which it is crossed on a rope bridge or jooia, suspended across the river, here eighty yards broad, from posts erected on each side.

On the opposite side of the Alacananda, at a village named Ranihaut, is a temple sacred to Raja Iswara, and principally inhabited by dancing women. The initiation into this society is performed by anointing the head with oil taken from the lamp placed before the altar, by which act they make a formal abjuration of their parents and kindred, devoting their future lives to prostitution. Among the items of eleemosynary donations distributed to Brahmins and others by the old governments, and continued under the present regime by the British, the principal in amount

is 512 rupees, which is given to various tribes of religious mendicants, who frequent a melah or fair, held annually near to Serinagur.—(*Raper, Hardwicke, Trail, &c.*)

SERINGAPATAM (*Sri Ranga Patana*).—A city in the province of Mysore, of which it was the capital during the short-lived Mahomedan dynasty of Hyder; lat. 12° 25′ N., lon. 76° 45′ E. This city is placed at the upper end of an island surrounded by the Cavery, which is here a large and rapid river, having a very extensive channel, impeded by rocks and fragments of granite. By actual survey, the island of Seringapatam has been found to be about four miles in length, by one and a half in breadth across the middle part, where the ground also is highest, as it from thence slopes to the north. The country in the neighbourhood rises gradually on both sides of the river, and is for some distance finely watered by canals, the water of which is forced in by dams thrown across the river and formed of granite blocks, the whole of prodigious strength, and executed at a vast expense. Average height of the barometer 27,568, consequent elevation above the level of the sea 2,412 feet.

In the Mysore province Seringapatam is usually called Patana or the city, but the name by which it is distinguished in the maps is a corruption of Sri Ranga, an epithet of Vishnu, the preserving power. This fortified town occupies about a mile at the west end of the island, and is an immense, unfinished, injudicious mass of building. In constructing the works Tippoo retained the long strait walls and square bastions of the Hindoos, while his glacis was in many parts so high and steep as to shelter the assailants. They are all now much dilapidated. On an eminence in the centre of the island, at some distance from the city, stands a large, busy, and handsome suburb, with wide streets lined with trees, and intersecting each other at right angles, called Sheher Ganjam, which has risen on the ruins of the old cantonments destroyed by Tippoo previous to the siege. In the gardens adjoining, amidst a groupe of buildings consisting of four choultries and a mosque, is the mausoleum of Hyder, where rest all that was royal of his dynasty, consisting of Hyder himself, his wife, and Tippoo. The palace in the city is an extensive pile of buildings, surrounded by a high and massy wall of stone and mud, the whole patched, irregular, unseemly, and going rapidly to decay. One portion was converted after the capture to an hospital, a second to private quarters for officers, and the whole variously appropriated; but the garrison having been latterly reduced to a single battalion, almost the whole is now (1820) neglected and untenanted.

The principal bazar of Seringapatam, extending from the Bangalore gate, is straight and spacious, and there is a good road under the ramparts encircling the city; but the other streets have a very indifferent appearance, and on the whole Seringapatam must be denounced as a very mean capital. The houses are whitewashed externally, have tiled roofs, and generally a low second story. The public buildings besides the palace, are few and paltry; the most striking are the great mosque and the pagoda of Sri Ranga. Another Hindoo temple was converted by Tippoo into an arsenal, and is still used for that purpose. A manufactory of gun carriages (the only one under the Madras presidency, and established here from the vicinity of the teak forests) occupies the site of the ancient palace of the Mysore rajas. The Dowlet Baugh, Tippoo's favourite residence, has been transformed to an English house, and all its uncouth frescoes have been obliterated, except a representation of Col. Baillie's defeat, and some other sketches on the wall of the eastern veranda.

During the administration of the Dewan Purneah, a bridge was constructed across the northern branch

of the Cavery, which, however rude and deficient in principle, is certainly an extraordinary native work. It traverses the river in a winding direction, is entirely composed of granite, and without arches, being supported by three rows, each of sixty-seven square pillars, each pillar formed of a single mass of granite, fitted into the rock below, connected together by cross beams of the same material, and the road resting on slabs of granite thrown across above. An old structure of the same sort, across the southern arm of the river, serves the double purpose of a bridge and an aqueduct to convey the water of the little Cavery to the city and island.

On the night of the 6th February 1792, Lord Cornwallis attacked Tippoo's fortified camp, under the walls of Seringapatam, within a bound hedge strengthened by redoubts, and amounting to 40,000 infantry, besides a large body of cavalry. For this attack he selected 2,800 Europeans and 5,900 native infantry, the whole without artillery. The attack was completely successful, and eighty guns were taken, with the loss of 535 men killed and wounded. The sultan's loss in the battle is said to have been 4,000, but the desertion was so great after the overthrow that his army was reduced in number at least 20,000. On the 24th of February preliminaries of peace were settled with Tippoo, who relinquished half his dominions, and paid three crores and thirty lacks of rupees (about £3,500,000 sterling) in bullion. Lord Cornwallis gave up to the troops the whole of his share of prize money, amounting to £47,244, and General Medows (next in command) his, amounting to £14,997. On this occasion the force brought against the Mysore sovereign was one of the most formidable ever seen in Hindostan. On the 16th March 1792 the British armies above the ghauts amounted in all to 11,000 Europeans, 31,000 disciplined natives, and 190 pieces of ordnance. The Maharatta's, the Nizam's, the Raja of Travancore's, and the Coorg raja's forces, amounted to 40,000 men, of whom 30,000 were cavalry. Towards the conclusion of the siege, allowing four camp followers to each soldier, the number of persons, of all descriptions, attached to the camps of the confederates exceeded 400,000.

The bullocks attached to the army and employed in bringing up supplies amounted to half a million, requiring one man to every three bullocks; there were also several hundred elephants and many thousand camels, with their attendants. Every horse in the cavalry and in the army, besides the trooper or rider, has two attendants, one who cleans and takes care of him, the other the grass-cutter who provides his forage. The palanquin and litter carriers for the sick are a numerous class. Field officers, including the people who carry or have charge of their baggage, cannot have less than forty, captains twenty, and subalterns ten servants. The soldiers have a cook to each mess, and the sepoys, most of whom are married, have many of them, as well as the followers, their families in camp. The bazar people or merchants, their servants, and adventurers who follow the army for the chance of plunder, are a great many. Early in the war some of the sepoys were prevailed on to send back their families, and arrangements were made to reduce the number of followers; but these measures tended to create desertion, and increase distress. While marching there are no towns to be depended on for supplies, and an army in India not only carries with it most of the means of subsistence for several months, but many articles of merchandize; the scene altogether resembling more the migration of a nation guarded by troops, than the advance of an army to subdue an enemy.

In 1799, war being again declared, Seringapatam was stormed on the 4th of May, about two o'clock in the afternoon, by the army under General Harris; the garrison amounted to about 8,000 men, of whom the greater part were slain. Tippoo was

killed under a gateway, probably by a party of the twelfth regiment of foot, for this important event was not actually known until some time after it had happened. No individual ever appeared to claim the honour of having slain the sultan, nor was it ever discovered who had obtained possession of his valuable necklace of pearls. Among the arrangements consequent to the surrender of Seringapatam, the British government obtained permanent possession of the island, which was at first kept strongly garrisoned; but its importance as a military position having gradually died away, and its climate become remarkably unhealthy, a large proportion of the troops were withdrawn. In A.D. 1800 the population of the city was estimated at 20,815 persons, and that of the suburbs at 11,080; but so rapid a decrease had subsequently taken place, that in 1820 the population within the walls was reduced to less than 10,000 persons.

Travelling distance from Madras 290 miles; from Hyderabad 406; from Poona 525; from Bombay 622; from Nagpoor 727; from Calcutta 1,170; and from Delhi 1,321 miles. —(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, Dirom, Lord Valentia, Rennell, &c.*)

SERINGHAM (*Sri Rangam*).—Opposite to the town of Trichinopoly, in the Carnatic province, the Cavery separates into two branches, and forms the island of Seringham. About thirteen miles to the east of the point of separation the branches again approach, but the northern one is at this spot twenty feet lower than the southern. The northern branch is permitted to run waste to the sea; but the southern, which retains the name of the Cavery, is led by a variety of channels to irrigate the province of Tanjore. Near the east end of the Seringham island an immense mound, called the Annicut, is formed to prevent the waters of the Cavery from descending into the Coleroon.

The Seringham pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island, at a small distan from the bank of the Coleroon. is composed of seven square encl sures, the walls of which are twent five feet high and four feet thicl These enclosures are 350 feet di tant from each other, and each ha four large gates with a high towe which are placed in the middle c each side of the enclosure, and oppo site to the four cardinal points. Th outward wall is nearly four miles i circumference, and its gateway to th south is ornamented with pillars several of which are single stone thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter. Those that form the roof are still larger, and had this gateway been completed with a pyramidical top of corresponding dimensions, it would have greatly surpassed every work of the kind in Hindostan. The several enclosures of the pagoda are laid out in regular streets, some of them remarkable for neatness, and filled with choultries, small temples, shops, and the dwellings of Brahmins. Europeans are not permitted to penetrate beyond the fourth septum; but the arch of the great choultry of a thousand pillars, which they are at liberty to ascend, affords a glimpse of the remaining areas, and commands a full view of the gilt and gaudy cupola of the temple of Sri Rangam. The palanquin and umbrella of solid gold, apparel studded with rich gems, and other wealth belonging to the divinity, are also brought out and ostentatiously displayed to strangers.

About half a mile from Seringham, and nearer the Cavery, is another pagoda with only one enclosure, named Jambckisma, between which and the one above described a spacious tank, with choultries, intervenes, and the whole island is rich in cultivation and well-wooded. Pilgrims from all quarters of Hindostan resort to Seringham for absolution, and none come without an offering of value. Here, as in all great pagodas, the Brahmins live in a state of subordination that knows no resistance, and slumber in voluptuousness that

feels no want. This state of negative happines does not appear to have been disturbed until the siege of Trichinopo'y, which begun about A.D. 1751, at which period the French and their allies took possession of the island and pagoda of Seringham, but they never attempted to violate the inner enclosures of the temple, or expose this Hindoo sanctuary to greater pollutions than were absolutely necessary. In 1752 the French army was compelled to surrender to Major Lawrence, at which time it consisted of thirty-five commissioned officers, 725 battalion men bearing arms, besides sixty sick and wounded in the hospital, and 2,000 sepoys. Their artillery was four thirteen-inch mortars, eight cohorns, two petards, thirty-one pieces of cannon, besides a great quantity of stores and ammunition. At present the allowances made by the British government for the support of the pagoda and its establishment, amount to 15,600 pagodas per annum.—(*Orme, Fullarton, Wilks, &c.*)

SERONGE (*corrupted from Sheregunge*).—A large open town in the province of Malwa, which from its size and population might be denominated a city; lat. 24° 5′ N., lon. 77° 41′ E. The country for many miles to the south of Seronge is an open plain, the country generally is of a superior description, and the climate, on account of its elevation, more temperate that its latitude would indicate. During the cold season the thermometer is frequently seen under the freezing point, when natural ice is formed in the shallow pools, but is speedily dissolved after sunrise. Seronge appears at one time to have enjoyed a higher state of prosperity than it at present exhibits, yet its condition is still much superior to what might have been expected from its having been so many years the head of Ameer Khan's Pindary government, and from its situation exposed to incessant ravages. The bazars are strong, being built of stone, on an elevation of four feet above the street. A large caravanserai still remains, having a double row of pillars and walled all round.

In 1809 a British army from the Madras presidency, when in pursuit of Ameer Khan, took possession of Seronge, but only proceeded five miles further north, it being found impossible to overtake him. This formerly predatory chief possesses Seronge in Malwa, and Tonk on the Banass river in Rajpootana, which were confirmed to him in consequence of his relinquishing all his other innumerable claims. Latterly he has also abandoned his migratory life, assumed the title of nabob, and shewn a disposition to fix his residence in the neighbourhood of Tonk, where in 1820 he was employed building a palace on the Banass river. In 1819 Ameer Khan's gross revenue amounted to six lacks of rupees per annum, but it was expected to reach ten lacks in 1824. He usually resides in that portion of his territories between Boondee and Jeypoor, managing Seronge through the medium of an agent, but he has no root in the soil where he has planted himself, and little influence beyond his own estates. His descendants, however, will probably acquire both, and the establishment of Mahomedans in this quarter of Hindostan, from political considerations, is rather desirable. Travelling distance from Oujein, 165 miles; from Agra, 253; from Benares, 389; from Bombay, 595; from Calcutta by Benares, 849; and from Nagpoor, 295 miles.—(*Twelfth Register, Prinsep, Fullarton, Malcolm, Rennell, Heyne, &c.*)

SEROOR.—The cantonment of the British troops stationed in the province of Aurungabad, and former dominions of the ex-Peshwa Bajerow; lat. 18° 40′ N., lon. 74° 35′ E., forty miles N.E. of Poona.

This great military station extends in a long straggling line between the base of Piquet hill, which rises abruptly behind it, and the stream of the Goor Nuddy, and its north-eastern boundary is about a mile dis-

tant from the old village of Seroor. The main street is exceedingly spacious, and lined on both sides with the bungalows of the officers, which have generally handsome gardens attached, enclosed by milk-plant hedges, and well shaded by cypresses and fruit-trees. Since the total subjugation of the Maharatta country, the importance of this position in a military point of view has greatly diminished. In 1820 the force cantoned amounted to only two battalions of infantry, one regiment of cavalry, and the Bombay corps of horse artillery. It was then in contemplation to abandon Seroor altogether (since carried into execution), and divide the field force in this quarter between the cantonments of Poona and Solapoor.

In the burial-ground at Seroor, the remains of the late Colonel Wallace, well known for his long and eminent services in the Deccan, are interred. It is a remarkable proof of the respect with which his memory is cherished by the native soldiery, as well as of the pliant nature of Hindoo superstition, that whenever the cantonment is threatened with any thing in the shape of a public disaster (such as a dearth of grain in the bazar, &c.), Wallace's ghost is believed by the sepoys to become perturbed, and to walk abroad. On this portentous event they are in the habit of resorting to his tomb, where they perform poojah (worship) to his manes, which, as they suppose, has the double effect of restoring quiet to his spirit, and averting the impending calamity. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Seroor.—A large village in the province of Bejapoor, S.E. from Bagulcot, which in 1820 contained 680 houses, and 2,314 persons.

Serya (*surya, the sun*).—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the gulf of Cutch, forty miles E. by N. from Juggeth point; lat. 29° 19′ N., lon. 69° 44′ E.

Seundah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, belonging to Ditteah, situated on the east bank of the Sinde river, twenty-three miles N.N.W. from Sumpter; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E.

Seurdah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-one miles N. by W. from Callinjer: lat. 25° 21′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

Seva Samudra.—See Sivana Samudra.

Seven Islands.—A cluster of very small islands in the Eastern seas, extending along the coast of Banca island, from which they are separated by a navigable channel; lat. 1° 10′ S., lon. 105° 20′ E.

Severndroog (*suvarna durga, the golden fortress*).—A small rocky isle on the Concan coast, province of Bejapoor, within cannon-shot of the continent; lat. 17° 46′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. During the reign of Sahoo Raja, sovereign of all the Maharattas, Conajee Angria, the pirate, revolted; and having seduced one-half of the fleet to follow his fortunes, he with it took and destroyed the remainder. He afterwards established his head-quarters at this place, where he and his posterity governed until 1756, when it was taken by Commodore James, in the Protector frigate, with scarcely any assistance from the Maharatta besieging army. This place and the neighbouring station of Dapoolee being situated on an elevated portion of the coast, enjoy a fine breeze, and have been selected as the site of a convalescent hospital for the European garrison of Bombay.—(*Orme, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Severndroog.—A strong hill-fort in the Mysore raja's territories, twenty miles W. by S. from Bangalore; lat. 12° 53′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E. This fort is surrounded by a forest of natural wood or jungle several miles in depth, thickened with clumps of planted bamboos, to render it impenetrable. It is impossible to invest or blockade Severndroog closely, the rock forming a base of eight or ten miles in circumference, which with the

jungle and lesser hills that surround it include a circle of twenty miles. From this base it rises, a prodigious mass of granite above half a mile in perpendicular height, and nearly precipitous, its naked surface being only diversified by two shrubs that have crept up its lower surface, or inserted themselves into its crevices, by its lines of fortifications, and by the temple (reduced by distance to the size of a sentry box) which crowns its summit.

This huge mountain has further the advantage of being divided above by a chasm which separates the upper part into two hills, called by the natives, from a slight difference of colour, the white and black forts, each with their defences forming two citadels, and capable of being maintained independent of the lower works that cover the connecting ridge. This stupendous fort, so difficult to approach, is no less famed for its pestilential atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength.

Severndroog was besieged during the first war with Tippoo in 1791, when, after breaching the wall, the troops advanced to the storm, Lord Cornwallis in person superintending the attack. On the appearance of the Europeans advancing, the garrison, being seized with an unaccountable panic, fled, and the breach was carried without meeting or even overtaking the enemy. The main body of the latter endeavoured to gain the western hill, which had they effected, the siege must have re-commenced; but a small party of the fifty-second and seventy-first regiments pressed so hard upon them, that they entered the different barriers along with them, and gained possession of the top of the mountain. Above 100 of the enemy were killed on the western hill, and many fell down the precipices in attempting to escape from the assailants. Thus in less than one hour, in open day, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was stormed without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded during the assault. A small guard of the Mysore raja's sepoys is now (1820) the only garrison. The pettah, situated under the eastern brow of the ridge which unites the two great eminences, has become a mere wilderness, and destitute of any inhabitants except a few Brahmins who officiate at two temples.—(*Dirom*, *Fullarton*, *&c.*)

Sew River.—A river in the province of Gundwana which rises in Wyerghur, and after traversing the western part of Choteesghur, joins the Mahanuddy about ten miles north-east of Lohari. It is navigable beyond Simgah from July until February, and partially throughout the whole year, the water being collected in deep extensive pools.—(*Jenkins*, *&c.*)

Sewad (*or Swat*).—An Afghan district in the Cabul province, situated about the thirty-fourth degree of north latitude, and in part bounded by the Indus. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this district is described as follows:—"Circar Sewad comprehends three territories, *viz.* Bembher, Sewad, and Bijore. The Sewad division measures in length forty, and in breadth from five to fifteen coss. On the east lies Bembher, on the north Kinore and Cashgur, on the south Beckram, and on the west Bijore. In the mountains of this country are several passes. The summer and winter are temperate; the mountains are covered with snow, but in the plains it melts in three or four days after the fall. Here are spring, autumn, and periodical rains as in Hindostan. Both the spring and autumn harvests are plentiful. Here all the flowers of Tartary and Hindostan, violets, narcissuses, and a variety of fruits grow wild. The whole of this circar consists of hills and wilds, and is inhabited by the Yusephzeis."

The valley of Sewad or Swat opens on the plain of Peshawer, and is intersected throughout its whole

extent by the river Lundye, separating upper from lower Sewad. The first is sixty miles long, and from ten to sixteen broad; the second is of equal length, but broader, and of greater fertility. The residence of the chief of Upper Sewad is named Deer, and contains about 500 houses. Lower Sewad is well peopled, and the chief place Allahdund a considerable town. Sewad is separated from Beneer by steep hills, thinly inhabited by Baubees, an inconsiderable tribe of Afghans. On the lower hills of this district the snow lies for four months of the year. Few trees are seen on the tops of the hills, but their sides are covered with forests of pine, oak, and wild olive. Lower down are many little valleys, watered by clear and beautiful streams, with an excellent climate. The sides of these hills also afford a profusion of European fruits and flowers, which are found wild in an infinite variety. In the midst of the principal valley is the river Swat, watering a rich but narrow plain, which yields two harvests, and produces most sorts of grain, especially rice, which is very abundant. Besides cultivated fruit-trees many mulberry and plane-trees are seen here.

The original inhabitants of this territory, named Swatees, appear to have been of Indian derivation, and are supposed to have formerly possessed a kingdom extending from the Hydaspes to Jellalabad. These were gradually restricted by the Afghan tribes, and Sewad and Beneer, their last seats, about the conclusion of the fifteenth century subdued by the Yusephzeis, yet they are still numerous in this quarter. The Afghan tribes of Sewad have always been singularly turbulent, and yielded little more than a nominal obedience to any sovereign; but being subdivided into a great number of distinct clans, without any common head, they have been much less formidable to their neighbours than they might otherwise have been. They were chastised on account of their predatory habits by Acber; in 1670 by Aurenzebe; and in 1739 by Nadir Shah, while on his return from Hindostan. The emperor Baber, in his memoirs, says that sultan Weiss was king of Sewad, which extended from the river Sewad to Baramula, east of the Indus, and at that date the chief entrance into Cashmere.—(*Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, Leyden, the Emperor Baber, &c.*)

SEWAN (*or Alligunge*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, sixty-six miles N.W. from Patna; lat. 26° 11′ N., lon. 84° 25′ E. In this vicinity an inferior sort of crockery is made, in imitation of Staffordshire-ware, from a species of black potter's marle.

SEWDAH.—A town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar; lat. 21° 9′ N., lon. 75° 58′ E., twenty-three miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. This place lies low, the houses are of mud, and the streets narrow and dirty, but the ghurry is high, and overlooks the town. The surrounding country is a fine plain, which in 1816 was well cultivated, although then liable to much annoyance from Bheels and Pindaries. Feizpoor is another town to the north-west, from which circumstance it is sometimes named Feizpoor Sewdah.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

SEWEE.—A flat dry plain of hardened clay, in Afghanistan, in some parts relieved by streams from the hills, and round the town of Sewee well cultivated. It is inhabited by the Cauker tribe of Pannees, and by their inveterate enemies, the Baloochies. In modern times this tract had been little explored, but in A.D. 1582 Abul Fazel relates, that "near to Sewee there is a lake, two days' journey in length, called Munjoor, upon the surface of which fishermen have formed artificial floating islands, where they reside and carry on their occupations."

SEWISTAN.—A large province of Baloochistan, consisting of a stupendous range of mountains, extending southwards from Candahar, and only accessible by passes of extreme diffi-

culty. It is divided into the districts of Jhalawan to the south and Saharawan to the north, which includes Nooshky in the desert, and Moostung and Shal to the northward. Each of these sections is subdivided into tuks, or zillahs, furnishing quotas of troops, but paying no tribute. The climate of Sewistan is dry, and from its great elevation excessively cold in winter. —(*Christie, Kinneir, &c.*)

Sewry Narrain.—A town in the province of Gundwana, fifty miles S.E. from Ruttunpoor: lat. 21° 58′ N., lon. 83° 8′ E. The Mahanuddy is navigable as far as its junction with the Sew river beyond Sewry Narrain, from July to February, after which it becomes too shallow. Goods are conveyed from hence to Ryepoor and Choteesghur in small canoes. This part of India and the course of the Mahanuddy are as yet (1827) but imperfectly delineated in the best maps.

Seyer Isles.—A cluster of small islands lying off the west coast of the Malay peninsula, about half a degree north of Junk Ceylon; lat. 8° 43′ N., lon. 97° 48′ E., and distant about twenty-eight miles from the main land, which is visible. The largest isle is about five miles in length by one in breadth. When visited by the Siam mission in 1821 a general silence prevailed, the dense woods and rocky shore being neither inhabited or frequented by birds or beasts. This is the more extraordinary, as even the universal enemy, man, was absent, while vegetables, fruits, palms, yams, and other roots grew spontaneously. — (*Finlayson, &c.*)

Seyrah.—A town in the province of Gujerat, sixty-five miles E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 73° 42′ E.

Seysuna.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twenty-four miles south from Kotah; lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E.

Shah Nehr Canal.—The upper part of this canal is said to have been cut by the emperor Shah Jehan to bring the water of the Jumna to his garden at Padshah Mahal, a hunting seat in the district of Saharunpoor, close under the hills. The excavator of the rest of the canal is unknown, but it is supposed to have been repaired as far as Ghousghur by Zabeta Khan, the nabob of Saharunpoor, and it now assumes his name. It was formerly fed by a branch of the Jumna, which flowed under Padshah Mahal; but the Boora, or Old Jumna, deserted its bed which fed this canal. After that period a zemindar, Fyzoola Khan, of Raypoor, dug a cut, and brought water again into the bed of the old Jumna.—(*General Kyd, Capt Hodgson, &c.*)

Shahabad.—A town in the province of Delhi, 101 miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 30° 8′ N., lon. 77° 6′ E.

Shahabad.—A large district in the province of Bahar, situated about the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the course of the Ganges; on the south and east by that of the Sone; and on the west by Chunar and the province of Allahabad. It extends from the river Sone to the Caramnassa, and from the banks of the Ganges to the mountains of Rhotas. In A.D. 1784 the original circar of Shahabad contained only 1,869 square miles; but it has since been greatly augmented by incorporations from the adjacent territories.

This district is extremely fertile, and in general populous; but towards the south-west it still contains many tracts of waste land. In 1801 the proportion the uncultivated land bore to the cultivated was estimated by the collector at one to four, exclusive of the hills that form the southern boundary; but the accuracy of many of the returns made to government at that time cannot be depended on, not being the result of actual investigation, but in most cases of mere conjecture. By the diligence of the revenue officers some lands have been discovered not included in the revenue settlement; and in 1822 the

ryotwar system was introduced into several mahals, instead of bringing them to public sale.

The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are opium, tobacco, cotton, sugar, indigo, and hemp, and the cultivation of all (especially of sugar) has for many years past been gradually increasing. The district contains no brick or mud private forts, nor are there any schools or seminaries within its limits where the Hindoo or Mahomedan laws are taught. Shahabad is pre-eminent in Bengal and Bahar for the excellence of its roads, a distinction mainly to be attributed to a salutary reservation in the original settlement with the zemindars, of a certain annual per centage for their repair, whereby all doubt was removed as to the party on whom the burthen of such repairs was to fall. In 1801, in consequence of instructions from the Marquis Wellesley (the governor-general) the board of revenue in Bengal circulated various queries on statistical subjects to the different collectors under that presidency. The result of their returns tended to establish the fact, that Shahabad contained two millions of inhabitants, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to twenty Hindoos. It has always been remarkable for the great number of suttees (burnings of widows) that take place annually within its limits, and for the attachment of the inhabitants to the practice.—(*J. Deane, Fullarton, Colebrooke, &c.*)

SHAHABAD.—A considerable town, with the remains of fortifications and many large houses, in the province of Oude, thirty miles N.E. from Furruckabad; lat. 27° 40′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E.

SHAHDERAH.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Meerut, situated near the east bank of the river Jumna, opposite to the city of Delhi. This is a spacious and pleasant town, with wide streets, containing a large proportion of brick houses.

SHAHJEHANPOOR. — A town in Northern Hindostan, the residence of Raja Sunkar Chund, and in 1820 the capital of Kangra.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

SHAHJEHANPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 was the head of a district belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia; lat. 23° 26′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E. The name is derived from the emperor Shah Jehan, its founder. In progress of time it was assigned to Dowlet Row Sindia's mother, but was subsequently given to Meena Bhye, with whom it still remains. A colony of Borahs (Mahomedan merchants and pedlars) are settled here, who have imported European improvements in the construction and furnishing of their houses, from the sea-coast of Gujerat.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SHAHJEHANPOOR.—A town in the province of Lahore, eight miles N.W. from Nadone; lat. 31° 53′ N., lon. 76° 30′ E.

SHAHJEHANPOOR.—A large picturesque town, with a ruined castle and several mosques, in the province of Delhi, to which a fiscal subdivision of the enormous district of Bareily, under a collector, is attached; lat. 27° 52′ N., lon. 79° 48′ E., fifty miles S.E. from Bareily. In 1813 this town was esteemed more wealthy, and nearly as populous as Bareily, so that probably an allowance of 50,000 inhabitants does not exceed the reality. In 1813 the division of Shahjehanpoor contained 3,856,187 cucha (small) begas in cultivation, and was assessed with a jumma of 16,24,235 rupees, presenting an average rate of less than seven annas per bega. It further contained 2,907,430 begas fit for cultivation, and 4,010,411 entirely waste. The revenue of the prior year had been realized, with a balance of less than one per cent. The great and rapid augmentation of the available resources in this and the adjacent district of Bareily might, under ordinary circumstances, have excited apprehensions as to their stability; but the success and facility with which the revenues were actually realized during the years 1813

and 1814, were calculated to dissipate any apprehensions that might have been entertained on the subject.—(*Deane, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SHAHPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Azimnagur, situated on a fine plain about two miles south from the military station of Belgaum.

SHAHRAH.—A town in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Candwah, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and contained about 300 houses; lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 76° 32′ E.

SHAWA.—A village in the province of Gundwana, division of Bustar, and territories of Nagpoor, situated near the source of the Mahanuddy river, 2,117 feet above the level of the sea.

SHAHZADABAD.—A large town in the province and district of Allahabad, about thirty-four miles N.W. from the city of Allahabad. At this place there is one of the most spacious serais for the accommodation of travellers to be found in the upper provinces.

SHAHZADPOOR.—A town in the province of Oude, thirty-eight miles S.E. from Fyzabad; lat. 26° 24′ N., lon. 82° 27′ E.

SHAHNOOR (*named also Savanore and Sivanur*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, forty miles S.E. from Darwar; lat. 14° 59′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. This place is at present much decayed, having no buildings of elegance except the palaces, and these are in ruins. It is enclosed by a wall and ditch, but is not a place of strength. On the outside of the city wall to the northward are several long streets of houses for the most part uninhabited, and to the southward is a lake of water. Shahnoor was conquered from the Hindoos by the Bhamenee sovereigns of the Deccan so early as A.D. 1397, but at a later period became the capital of a small Patan state, giving the title of nabob to its hereditary possessor. Abdul Hakim Khan, the seventh lineal descendant, who reigned in 1792, had been tributary to Tippoo since 1784, when he abjured his allegiance, and accepted the protection of the Maharattas. After this defection, Tippoo's army, during a predatory incursion, destroyed the palaces and public buildings, blew up and razed the strong fortress of Bancapoor, and devastated the whole country, of which he retained possession until 1792, when it was wrested from him and restored to the nabob, under the superintendence of the Maharattas.

This territory was transferred to the Peshwa by the British government, in exchange for an equivalent in Bundelcund. About the time when Goklah, one of the southern jaghiredars, obtained possession of Shahnoor, there was a very general disturbance and usurpation (called by the natives Kautkace) throughout the country, and every man helped himself to whatever place he had troops enough to capture. The family of the Shahnoor nabob had an allowance from the Peshwa out of the revenues, but it was so extremely ill paid that in 1804 they were reduced to the utmost wretchedness, were covered with rags, or almost naked, and compelled to subsist on the plants they picked up in the fields. A remonstrance was in consequence presented by Mr. Strachey, the British agent, for arranging the possessions of the southern jaghiredars, to the then court of Poona, which had the effect of ensuring greater punctuality in the future discharge of the nabob's miserable pittance. In 1821 the British police had a concurrent jurisdiction in the territories of the Shahnoor nabob.—(*Moor, MSS., Ferishta, &c.*)

SHAIRGHUR (*Shekerghar*). — A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, twenty miles north from the town of Bareily; lat. 28° 20′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E.

SHAIYA (*or Chaiya*).—A Siamese town on the west side of the gulf of Siam, situated on the road from Le-

gor to Bankok, about lat. 9° 57′ N. In 1826 it contained about 2,000 inhabitants, besides a number of Chinese, and was defended by a stockade. There is much rice cultivated in the neighbouring country, and many junk loads annually exported. —(*Capt. Burney, Harris, Leal, &c. &c.*)

SHAMLEE.—A town in the Delhi province, fifty-three miles north from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 27′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E. This is a place about two miles in circumference, and contains many handsome houses, with a large bazar, and the remains of a mint. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and have separate gates at their entrances, which are shut at night for the security of the inhabitants.—(*G. Thomas, &c.*)

THE SHAN COUNTRY,

(*or Laos*).

A central region of India beyond the Ganges, which occupies the space between Ava, Siam, and China, occupied by various tribes generally in subjection to these empires, according to contiguity. Every where to the north and east Ava is bounded by districts inhabited by a people whom the Birmans call Shan, but who name themselves T'hay. From the Burmese word Shan coming to us through the Portuguese orthography is no doubt derived Siam, the name given by Europeans to the most distinguished nation of the race. Another branch of the same tribe is the Tay Lown or Casi Shan. East from this people on both sides of the Irawady, between the Birman and the Chinese, and extending from thence far south between the Ava dominions, and the Saluen river, is a numerous people governed by many hereditary chiefs named zabuas or chobwas, and tributary to Ava. By the Burmese this last branch is called Mrelap Shan, or Shanwa, and the sovereign of Ava among his titles usually assumes that of sovereign of the nine provinces of the Shan (Koshan-pri) meaning the nine chief provinces that pay him tribute.

There is little doubt that this is the same country with that mentioned in the universal history under the name of Kosangpyi, there described as lying west from the northern Laos, and having to its west the great forest of Pahimpan, probably the mountainous ridge that rises on the banks of the Irawady, half way between Bhanmo and Ava, on the frontiers of China, runs south inclining a little to the east, until it approaches the sea at Martaban, and separates the country of the Mranmas or Burmese from that of the Shans. The ridge is visible from Amarapura, seen from whence it appears to be between four and five thousand feet high, but as several rivers appear to pass through it, it cannot be considered an uninterrupted boundary.

To the N.N.W. of Siam is a considerable space covered with hills and jungles, and occupied by the tribe called Lowa or Lawa, many of whom are scattered among the forests of the countries possessed by the Shan or T'hay races. Dr. Francis Buchanan is of opinion these Lawa are the original inhabitants of the country, and that mixed with the Chinese and other kindred races, they form the Shan nation. These Shans still retain their original appellation of Lowa or Lawa, which is no doubt the origin of the names Lao, Law, Lawha, Lau, or Laho, applied by various authorities to the same people, and the Lao Shan of the Burmese is most probably the Northern Lao, or Laho of universal history, the capital of which about the middle of the seventeenth century was called Leng by the Chinese. The words Shan and Siam are supposed to be mere modifications of the same sounds.

The interior of this country having rarely been visited by any Europeans, we remain scantily informed respecting its topography and population, which last, however, may be presumed to be both more numerous and more civilized than had been anticipated.

A great annual fair is held at Rangoon, to which the Shans resort in great numbers. They come by the route of Tongho, making in all a journey of about forty days, transporting their goods on bullocks, and on the horses named by Europeans Pegu ponies. They bring down cane and palm sugar, the ground-nut, lac, fine lacquered-ware, gold and silver in ingots, supposed to be procured chiefly from Yunan in China. Besides these they bring coarse raw China silk, sometimes dyed; lead, the produce of their own country; and a small quantity of copper in sticks like that of Japan. By the above route a trade might be opened with Yunan and the south-western provinces of China, the northern ones of Siam, and the independent ones of the Shan country, as from the fair of 1826 the Shans carried off a considerable quantity of British cotton goods and woollens.

The Shan country is said to abound in metals, most of the iron used in Ava being supplied from the great mountain Poupa, which lies somewhere on the eastern side of the Irawady, near the lat. of 21° N. The passion of the Burmese for alchemy brings many of the Lao ores into the bazar of their capital, specimens of which were purchased and sent home by the members of the British embassy in 1826. These consisted principally of iron, silver, lead, copper, and antimony. The Shans possess the art of smelting all these metals, and bring them down in their metallic state. The silver mines are situated about twelve days' journey north-east of Bhanmo towards the Chinese frontier. The Shan tribes subject to Siam pay their tribute in stick-lac, benzoin, and other articles, besides which they send down cotton and rafts of teak-timber to Bankok. With respect to their imports, besides the goods above enumerated it seems probable that all the inhabitants of the interior of India beyond the Ganges are dependent for salt on that manufactured along the coasts of Pegu and Martaban.

In appearance and dress the Shans differ materially from the Burmese, their features much more resembling those of the Chinese, while one authority asserts that in industry, ingenuity, and enterprize, they surpass the Burmese, Peguers, and Siamese. In 1826 a man completely covered with hair was found in the Shan country on the banks of the Saluen river, and sent to Ava as a curiosity, where he was seen by the embassy in 1826. The hair was shaggy and about eight inches long, but on the breast and shoulders only four or five inches. His teeth were defective, the grinders being entirely wanting. He married a Birman woman, and had two daughters, one covered with hair like her father, only white and fair; the elder resembled her mother. Both father and child were perfectly formed, and excepting their hairy covering handsome. With respect to the Shan religion, it is in all probability some modification of the widely-extended doctrines of Buddha. Naug-roong is an ancient and highly venerated Buddhist sanctuary and place of pilgrimage in North Laos, to which the pious still resort with caravans and merchandise. Some of the tribes whose habitations are permanent have idols, which are reported to be the same as those of Tunquin, but it is said the veneration for their ancestors so prevalent among the Chinese does not exist here.

The Laos or Shan language has never been cultivated by Europeans; very few of whom, besides Alexander de Rhodes, have penetrated the country. According to Kœmpfer, the Shan nation do not differ much either in language or writing from the Siamese, except that they are unable to pronounce the letters R and L, and Dr. Leyden thought that their language bears the same relation to the T'hay or Siamese that the Arracanese does to the Birman, and that with the T'hay J'hay it accords more fully than with the T'hay Proper. The Laos language is represented as abounding in books, especially translations from the Bali; and if the antiquity of the nation can be depended on, they must be extremely interest-

ing on account of the central situation of the country; but our information as yet is too defective to admit of our forming any decided opinion on the subject.

When the exigence of war compelled the Burmese to muster from all their resources, the tributary Shan tribes bordering on China were called on to furnish their quotas. An armed contingent of 15,000 men was in consequence embodied, disciplined and despatched, headed by their chiefs or chobwas, and marched towards Amarapura from these remote regions. Unacquainted with the events of the war, and filled with extravagant notions of the power and invincible courage of the Burmese their conquerors, they readily obeyed the mandate in hopes of sharing the spoils that would no doubt accrue on the destruction of the rash strangers, whose presence contaminated the soil of Ava.

Eight thousand of these Shans formed part of the Burmese army when it approached Prome in November 1825, and having never before encountered Europeans, were expected to fight with much greater spirit and resolution than the often defeated soldiers of Ava. In addition to the numerous chobwas and petty chiefs, these Shan levies were accompanied by three young and handsome women of high rank, who were believed by their superstitious countrymen to be prophetesses and invulnerable. These Amazons, dressed in martial costume, rode about among the Shan troops, inspiring them with courage and confidence in their supernatural assistance. The result, however, was a most complete discomfiture, although many of the grey-headed chobwas fought to the last, refusing quarter. One of these ladies received a bullet in the breast, and was carried by the British soldiers to a cottage in the rear, where she expired. Another was observed flying on horseback along with the defeated remains of her people, but was knocked off her horse by a shrapnell, uncertain whether killed or not. The surviving Shans fled pursued and massacred by their Burmese allies, to escape whom they penetrated the most deadly jungles, so that numbers who had escaped from sword and gun, perished by disease and famine, few of the 15,000 ever revisiting their native country. Such was the inauspicious commencement of the first intercourse between the remote Shans and the British nation.—(*F. Buchanan, Snodgrass, Crawfurd, Trant, Low, Leyden, de Bissachere, &c.*)

Shaoor.—A small town containing several Hindoo temples in the province of Coimbatoor, forty-one miles travelling distance N.N.W. from Devaporam.

Shapoorah.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about seventy miles S.S.E. from the city of Ajmeer. Viewed externally, Shapoorah has the appearance of strength and importance, but within it presents a scene of poverty and decay.

Shapuree.—An island in the province of Bengal, situated at the extreme point of the strip of main-land forming the southern frontier of the Chittagong district, and only separated from it by a shallow channel, which is gradually filling up, while the main stream of the Nauf river, here above two miles broad, flows between it and the eastern or Arracan bank of that river. In A.D. 1822, the Burmese, who then possessed Arracan, set up a claim to this worthless muddy isle, and persevered so incessantly in their encroachments that a war ensued, which brought a British army within forty-five miles of Amarapoora, and ended with the loss of five provinces, torrents of blood, and a crore of rupees on the part of the Burmese. — (*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Shawgur (*Shah ghor*).—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the north bank of the Godavery, forty-two miles S.E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 23′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E.

SHEEALLY.—A small town in the Southern Carnatic, district of Tanjore, situated about twenty miles travelling distance north by west from Tranquebar, and distinguished by the phenomenon of a little inn, kept by a native, in a miserable bungalow.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHEEBGUNGE (*Siva ganj*).—A large and flourishing village in the province of Bengal, district of Rajshahy, eligibly situated on the banks of the Caratoya river. This is a place of considerable commerce, and in point of size and population only inferior to Nattore and Bauleah.

SHEERGOTTA (*shir ghat, the lion pass*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, eighty miles south by west from Patna; lat. 24° 32′ N., lon. 84° 55′ E. This is a populous place agreeably situated on a rising ground, surrounded by the river Moorhur, which here separates for a short space into two branches. Here are the gaol and other public buildings; and here the judge and magistrate of the zillah holds his court during six months of the year, when Chittra is reckoned unhealthy. To the east of Sheergotta there are the remains of an old mud fort, and there are several Mahomedan edifices in the neighbourhood.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHEGUL.—A Chinese fortress and garrison in Tibet, situated on the east side of the Arun river, which penetrates the Himalaya, and ultimately, along with the waters of the Cosi, joins the Ganges in the province of Bengal; lat. 28° 24′ N., lon. 87° 12′ E.

SHEIKHPOOR (*Shaikhpura*). — A town in the province and district of Bahar, situated close to the base of the Sheikhpoor range of hills, through which there is an easy pass here to the southward and westward; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 85° 54′ E.

SHEIKPOORA.—A town in the province of Delhi, five miles S.S.E. from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 55′ N., lon. 77° 32′ E.

SHEKARPOOR.—A district in Afghanistan, formerly subject to the Cabul sovereign, situated west of the Indus, between the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. To the east it is bounded by the Indus; on the west by Baloochistan; to the north it has the Mozaurees; and to the south the province of Sinde, of which it is sometimes described as a section. Adjacent to the Indus the soil is fertile, but at any considerable distance dry, sterile, and unproductive. The peasantry are Juts, Baloochies, and a few Hindoos; the revenue paid to the king, who in 1809 kept here a hakim and a few troops, was about three lacks of rupees. The Mozaurees, who dwell to the north of Shekarpoor, are a tribe of Baloochies, inhabiting a woody and ill-cultivated country. Their political condition is that of internal anarchy; on the highways they are robbers, on the Indus pirates, and, with reference to their neighbours, depredators.

The town of Shekarpoor stands in lat. 27° 36′ N., lon. 69° 18′ E., is of considerable size, and surrounded by a mud wall, without any ditch. The inhabitants are almost all Hindoos, termed Shekarpoories, and speak a peculiar dialect of Hindostany distinguished by that name. There are many rich bankers here, and a considerable trade is kept up with Rajpootana, Sinde, Candahar, and Peshawer. Shekarpoor bankers are to be found all over the Afghan dominions, and even in the remote towns of Turkistan, but they do not venture to carry their wives or female relations to these uncivilized countries. The number of resident Afghans has been estimated at only 200 families.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

SHEKAWUTTY.—This division of Rajpootana is situated about the twenty-eighth degree of north latitude, and is said to have received its name from a predatory tribe of Arabs. It extends about eighty miles from north to south, and rather less from east to west, but its limits

on all sides are extremely ill-defined, formerly fluctuating annually with political circumstances. To the north it is bounded by the British district of Hurrianna; on the south by those of the Jeypoor raja; to the east it has Hurrianna and territories subject to the Macherry raja; and to the west the dominions of Joudpoor and Bicanere. The surface of Shekawutty presents to the view a sandy plain, scattered with rocky hills, ill-watered, and badly cultivated; yet it contains several considerable towns, the most noted of which are Seekur, Futtehpoor, Khetri, and Gooda. The sands are interspersed with tufts of bug-grass, the baubool, the kurreel or caper tree, and a bush named phoke, which last is said to be peculiar to the great Ajmeer desert and its borders. The country is naturally strong, being encircled by hills, and protected by ghauts or passes, the principal of which are Ketree, Kundeela, Oudepoor, and Babhye. Near the last is a copper mine.

The Shekawutty chiefs are a military class, feudatories to the raja of Jeypoor, by whose assistance they were enabled at no very remote period to wrest their present possessions from the Kyankaries, a tribe of converted Hindoos. In 1805 the principal Shekawutty chiefs were, 1st, Row Bishen Singh, of Munohurpoor, the nominal head of all: in returning the respectful salute of the other chiefs he brings his hand no higher than his breast, which marks his superiority. 2d, Meer Singh Dass, and Pertaub Singh, rajas of Kundeela and Rewarra, then imprisoned at Jeypoor. 3d, Ubhee Singh, and various other leaders of the Khetri caste. Ubhee Singh held the pergunnah of Katpole from the British government for 20,000 rupees per annum.

Bhuil is a good sized town in the Shekawutty country, about eighteen miles W. by S. of Khiro. In consequence of its being situated on the high road from the Punjab to Bicanere, its inhabitants were accustomed to extort heavy contributions from the merchants, and frequently plundered them altogether. The Shekawutty troops are mostly cavalry. In 1813 a party of them of the Silhedee tribe made a predatory incursion to the Hurrianna near Behil, and plundered the country. Although nominally the subjects of the Jeypoor raja, they pay very little attention to his mandates, in consequence of which the British government directed that in future such freebooters should be hotly pursued into the country that gave them an asylum, and destroyed wherever they could be found. In 1818 the Shekawutties, after an unusual interval of tranquillity (four years), again became troublesome, when a detachment was marched into their country, where it captured three walled towns and levelled many of their mud forts; but the tribes and their chiefs still continued refractory, and rejected all subordination to their feudal superior, the Jeypoor raja. — (*Metcalfe, Lieut. White, Elphinstone, &c.*)

SHEKOABAD (*Shacoabad, the abode of magnificence*).—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-seven miles distant from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 6′ N., lon. 78° 27′ E. This place derives its name from Dara (Darius) Sheko, the eldest and unfortunate son of the emperor Shah Jehan, who, in the contest for empire with Aurengzebe, was defeated, hunted down like a wild beast, and at last murdered.

SHEMBEGHEWN.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated four miles inland from the Irawady, 100 miles east from Arracan, and 135 S.W. from the city of Ava; lat. 20° 30′ N., lon. 94° 30′ E. This is a town of considerable importance, as from hence the Aeng road branches off over the mountains into Arracan, which was marched by a detachment under Lieut. Trant in 1826. Before the war Shembeghewn contained 3,000 inhabitants, but in March 1826, when passed by the British army, not one habitation remained, having been burned to the ground by the Burmese

army while retreating. The surrounding country is an open plain, fertile, well irrigated, and highly cultivated. The Chalain river flows through the town, and during the rains is swelled to a considerable size. — (*Trant, &c.*)

SHEM DEO TEMPLE.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, eight miles E. by N. from Almora; lat. 29° 37′ N., lon. 79° 49′ E., 6,760 feet above the level of the sea.

SHEOPOOR (*Sivapura*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 104 miles S.E. from Jeypoor; lat. 25° 41′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E. This is the capital of a small principality possessed by a relation of the Jeypoor raja's.

SHEPOORY (*Sivapuri*). — A town in the province of Agra, thirty-five miles S.W. from Narwar; lat. 25°25′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E. To the south of this place the country is level and tolerably well cultivated, but to the north-west it is extremely ragged and covered with jungle. The town itself is almost a collection of ruins.

SHERIBON (*or Cheribon*).—A district in the island of Java, remarkable for its fertility, and the excellent quality of the coffee it produces. It fell under European influence so early as A.D. 1666, and, like Bantam prior to the arrival of the English, had been in a state of constant insurrection, which added to an unwholesome climate, had diminished the importance of the city of Sheribon. Indeed, owing to mismanagement this district never yielded to the Dutch a profit adequate to its great resources; especially of indigo, coffee, and teak timber. The sultans of Sheribon, being descended from one of the earliest Arabian propagators of the Mahomedan religion in Java, have always been much venerated by the pious of that faith. An insurrection broke out here in 1806, which was not suppressed until after the conquest of the island by the British, but no disturbance occurred during the subsequent period of the British occupation. According to a census taken in 1815 Sheribon contained a population of 216,001 persons, of which number 2,343 were Chinese, on an area of 1,334 square miles.

The town of Sheribon stands in lat. 6° 48′ S., lon. 108° 37′ E., 198 miles E.S.E. from Batavia by the post road. Owing to a pestilential distemper and other causes it has latterly greatly declined, having been deserted by a large proportion of its inhabitants. The great hill of Sheribon was formerly a volcano, and still occasionally sends forth smoke. At a little distance from the town is a mosque and mausoleum erected to the memory of Sheikh ibn Molana, which is going rapidly to decay, although still highly venerated by the Mahomedans.—(*Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

SHEVAGUNGA (*Sivaganga*). — A small fortified town in the Mysore province, about twenty-six miles N.W. from Bangalore. This place stands on the northern verge of the tract of wooded hills which stretch across Mysore between Bangalore and Seringapatam. The conical mountain of Shevagunga (the highest in the province) is a conspicuous object at a distance of thirty miles and upwards.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHEVAGUNGA. — A poligar town and zemindary in the southern Carnatic, sixty-nine miles S.S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 9° 55′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E. The general character of this estate is that of a dry country, having a light soil. It is much overgrown with jungle, and though flat has no cotton ground. The paddy grounds are confined to the left of the Vyar, which is finely cultivated; but there are few tanks, and scarcely any hills. Among the native Hindoo chiefs, the poligar dogs of this vicinity are held in high veneration, although the animal throughout India generally is reckoned unclean, and treated with unmerited contempt.

Shevagunga was ruled by rannys or

princesses until about sixty years ago, when two brothers named Murdoo, of low caste, usurped the government, under the title of dewans or prime ministers, and subsequently, on the death of the ranny, having mounted the throne, assumed the ancient title of the Pandian rajas. They were expelled by the nabob of Arcot, with the assistance of British troops, but he afterwards reinstated them. Continuing refractory, they were attacked by a British detachment, and defended themselves in the fortress of Callacoil for five months, but it being at last taken by storm, the Murdoos escaped into the neighbouring jungles, but were afterwards taken and hanged. As no female heir existed of the old Shevagunga family, the country was given to a relation of the late ranny.

The town, or rather village of Shevagunga, is large, open, and clean, agreeably situated, and much embellished by noble clumps of bamboos, and a profusion of other trees. In 1820, with the exception of the raja's premises, which contained an upper-roomed house, inhabited by the Tukt ke Baeta, or husband of the eldest daughter, and heiress to the zemindary, the place did not contain a dwelling above the rank of a hut. In the quarter inhabited by the Brahmins these are of a larger size, and neatly whitewashed. There is a mosque in Shevagunga of a respectable appearance, and at the above date a new pagoda was building; but although so long the capital of a genuine Hindoo principality, it did not then possess any ancient Hindoo edifice of the slightest note. In 1822 the population of the Shevagunga zemindary, according to the returns made to the Madras presidency by the collectors, was 186,903 persons. —(*Medical Reports, Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SHEVAGURRY (*Sivaghari*). — A town in the Carnatic province, ninety miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 55′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E.

SHEVELPATORE.—A town in the Carnatic province, 103 miles N. by E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 35′ N., lon. 77° 49′ E.

SHIALKUR (*or Shalkur*).—A fort north of the true Himalaya, but belonging to the principality of Bussaher, situated in Hangarang, on the borders of Lahdack, and banks of the river Li or Spiti, which joins the Sutuleje under the village of Namja, the last of Bussaher; lat. 32° N., lon. 78° 34′ E.; 10,272 feet above the level of the sea. It is built of loose stones and unburned bricks, with houses under the walls. Near to Shialkar the Spiti (which is here 10,113 feet above the level of the sea) is crossed on a good bridge of three fir trees planked over. Four miles to the north are hot wells in great repute.—(*Gerards, &c.*)

SHIKRAPOOR.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, situated on the high road from Poona to Seroor, and about five miles from the latter. This place stands on a rising ground, and is distinguished by a pagoda of stone, built in the general style of the temples of this part of the Deccan.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SHIPKE.—A large village in Chinese Tartary, district of Rongzhoong, under the deba or governor of Chaprung, a town, or rather a collection of huts, on the left bank of the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 49′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E. The houses here are built of stone with flat roofs, but are very much scattered; the gardens are hedged round with gooseberry bushes. The inhabitants are Tartars, but in dress and resemblance approach the Chinese, who are the sovereigns of the country. Shawl-wool is procured here, but the quality is inferior to that produced further east, and brought for sale to Gortope, which station is said to be eleven marches from Shipké. This is the highest point to which the British survey in 1823 had reached. The height of the bed of the Sutuleie

(which even in the dry season is here a considerable stream) is 9,267 feet above the level of the sea.

In October 1819 Lieut. Herbert crossed the Himalaya at the Gunass pass, and ascended the Sutuleje up to Shipké, a frontier valley in the Chinese territories. It was subsequently visited by Lieut. Gerard and his brother, who were presented by the Chinese functionaries with thirty pounds of flour, and an earnest request that they would quit the country.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, Gerards, &c.*)

Sholavanden.—A considerable town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, twelve miles N. from the town of Madura; lat. 10° 1′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E. It stands on the north bank of the Vyar or Vaygaroo river, and is composed of huts for the most part small and thatched, with many trees intermingled.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Shoechattah.—A celebrated Buddhist temple among the hills that separate Arracan from Ava, situated on a high peak about a mile from the Aeng road. It is held in great veneration by the Buddhists, as containing two impressions of Gaudma's foot, one at the summit of the hill and the other at the bottom; they are railed in, and covered over with splendidly gilt temples; the phoongies or officiating priests live in the contiguous kioums or monasteries. Pilgrims resort to this sanctuary from all parts of the Burmese empire. The richer classes, paying a tax of from twenty to fifty rupees, are allowed to pray within the railing; the poor pray outside but pay no tax. The ascent to the temple is by means of a flight of steps, 970 in number, protected from the weather by a wooden roof, supported by numerous pillars. —(*Trant, &c.*)

Shoomphoon (*Choomphoon*).—A Siamese town on the western side of the gulf of Siam, which in 1826 was estimated to contain 7,000 inhabitants, and situated about lat. 10° 50′ N. At the above date the only brick building in the place was a temple. Formerly the Siamese troops destined to attack the Burmese at Mergui used to assemble here, and its phya or governor was delegated to watch the Tenasserim provinces; indeed since the conquest of these provinces by the Burmese Choomphoon has always been considered an important station, and strongly garrisoned. This partly accounts for the absence of Chinese, and the entire cessation of the valuable trade that formerly subsisted with the gulf of Siam *via* Choomphoon.—(*Capt. Burney, Harris, Leal, &c.*)

Shujawulpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the east bank of the Jaumneer river, sixty-three miles E.N.E. from the city of Oujein; lat. 23° 24′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah, which in 1820 yielded a revenue of 80,297 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Shundrabandy (*Sundari vana*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, 106 miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 38′ N., lon. 77° 48′ E.

Siak.—A large principality on the north coast of the island of Sumatra, which in 1820 nominally extended from Tamiang, its most northern boundary, to Rantan, but it was then much intersected by territories possessed by independent chieftians. The great river of Siak has its source in the mountains of Menangcabow, and empties itself nearly opposite to Malacca. The shores are flat for a considerable distance up the country, and the whole of the soil is probably alluvial; but about 125 miles from its mouth, in lat. 1° 30′ N., lon. 102° 10′ E., where it is three-fourths of a mile broad, with a tide of twelve feet, there is the appearance of high land. According to native information it is navigable eight days' sail inland. The chief seaport is Campar.

In point of commercial importance Siak ranks first of all the petty states in this quarter, being situated on a

large river, and more central than the others. The exports are gold, camphor, gambir, rattans, tobacco, wax, sago, ivory, gahron, and silk cloths; the principal imports, opium, salt, woollens, and Madras piece goods. In A.D. 1818 a treaty of commerce similar to that with Lingen was negociated by Major Farquhar, who was received at Siak with the most friendly attention. British missions had previously visited this state, in 1806 under Capt. Scott, and in 1807 under Mr. Gurling. In 1820 the direct commerce of Siak, mostly with Malacca, Singapoor, and Penang, was still considerable, their gold and silk cloths having been long highly valued in the surrounding Malay countries. A considerable quantity of excellent timber was procured here for the construction of his Majesty's frigate Malacca, and the East-India Company's ship Inglis of 1,200 tons, both built at Penang. But with respect to its political condition, the Siak principality scarcely deserved the name of a government, the chiefs nominally subordinate to the sovereign being mostly successful pirates, who had assumed the titles of rajas and sultans, with little or no influence beyond their miserable villages, thinly scattered along a great extent of sea and river coast. About a century ago it was described as a powerful state. —(*Ibbetson, Anderson, &c.*)

SIAM.

(Syama, black.)

An ancient kindom of India beyond the Ganges, situated principally between the tenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude. To the east it is bounded by the Cochin Chinese empire; to the north, including the tributary Shan country, it touches on the Chinese province of Yunan; towards the west it is bounded by the sea, the British provinces south of Rangoon, and the Burmese territories; and on the south by the Indian ocean, bay of Bengal, and the Malay peninsula, a large proportion of which is either directly subject or tributary to Siam. Viewed more in detail it consists of the following provinces:

1st. Siam Proper, or the T'hay country, which occupies principally the valley of the Menam River, together with the tracts watered by its various branches, from about lat. 13° to 20° north.

2nd. A large portion of Laos, or the Shan Country.

3d. A considerable section of Cambodia.

4th. A portion of Pegu, or the Mon Country.

5th. The peninsula of Malacca, from the head of the gulf down to lat. 7° N., where at Trang on the one side and Sungora on the other, they meet the Malay nation.

Along the east side of the gulf of Siam, the Siamese territories extend as far as the port of Athien or Cancao, belonging to the Cochin Chinese; but it is yet little known to Europeans. The principal seaports in this quarter are Chantibun, Tungyai, Pongsom, and Kampot; the first belongs to Siam, but the others to the Cochin Chinese portion of Cambodia. On the west side of the gulf the Siamese possess the districts of Chaiya, Phoomseeing, Choomphoon, Bantaphan, Mai, and Phriphri. Towards the bay of Bengal the Siamese territories are separated from the British conquered provinces south of Rangoon, by a mountainous ridge from 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, the intervention of which will reduce the chances of dispute and collision between the two governments. In former times this was considered debateable land, belonging neither to the Burmese nor the Siamese, each nation having troops stationed to catch trespassers when they ventured to cross them.

Siam proper may be described as a vast plain intersected by the Menam river, on the banks of which all the principal towns are situated. Like the province of Bengal, which it in many respects greatly resembles, it is subject to annual inundation, commencing in July, and when at their height overflowing the country, except

the artificial sites of villages, the rice stalks rising with the flood. Near the shores of the Menam the country is perfectly flat, and the soil alluvial, on which account after the rainy season is over many extensive morasses remain, and render the climate extremely pestilential to European constitutions, causing fluxes, dysenteries, and acute fevers. In the more elevated parts remote from the river the country is parched and dried up.

To the overflowing of the river, however, the land in its vicinity owes its extraordinary fertility, and is very productive of rice and other plants that require a redundant supply of moisture. Wheat is also raised on the higher grounds; but in respect to rice, Siam is probably the cheapest country in the world, the price being usually under two shillings per cwt., or ten Spanish dollars per coyan of 4,080 lbs. avoirdupois. Besides these the soil is capable of raising all the richest productions for which Bengal is celebrated; but little, comparatively, is cultivated, owing to the extortions and oppressions to which the peasantry are liable, and there is reason to believe that in the remote tracts a large proportion of the surface is still covered with primeval forests. The most valuable trees in these are teak, rosewood, eagle, and sapan-woods. The first is of the same quality as the Ava teak, and is floated down 300 miles from the interior to the capital, where it is applied to the construction of native junks, scarcely any being exported. The most valuable produce of these forests is the sapanwood, which is both abundant and of an excellent quality, and forms all the dunnage and many of the cargoes of the Chinese. The aguilla or eagle wood is obtained among the islands that stud the eastern coast of the gulf of Siam, and aloe from some of the mountains inland, this precious perfume being almost the exclusive production of Siam and Cochin China. Most of the fruits of Hindostan thrive here, and there are besides the durian and mangosteen.

The staple articles of regular culture are rice, sugar, pepper, and tobacco. It is only seventy years since sugar was procured from the cane by the Chinese, who had in consequence additional privileges conferred on them, and the export now exceeds 80,000 peculs. Pepper is raised on the east side of the gulf, about the latitudes of eleven and twelve degrees north, and about 60,000 peculs are annually exported, mostly to China. From the same quarter gum, gamboge, and cardamoms are procured. Benzoin, produced chiefly in Laos or the Shan country, has of late years been exported in considerable quantities; the Chinese deal also extensively in hides, peltry, horns, bones, ivory, feathers, salt-fish, salt, and esculent birds'-nests. The hides consist principally of deer skins, besides those of buffaloes, elephants, and rhinoceroses; the peltry of tigers, leopard, otter, and cat skins. Rhinoceros' horns and deers' antlers are much esteemed by the Chinese for their medicinal virtues; the other bones are ground by that industrious people for manure to revive nearly exhausted soils. The stick-lac comes mostly from Laos and the northern parts, and large quantities of culinary salt are annually manufactured by the process of solar evaporation, constituting an essential branch of the inland trade, distributed by the Menam and its tributaries.

From Hindostan opium (about 200 chests), cotton goods, and a small quantity of embroidered silks are received; of European articles those most in demand are white cotton goods, cheap woollens, fire-arms, and glass-ware. Of the foreign trade that with China is incomparably of most value, and exists with every town and village along the coast, not being restricted to one port like that with Europeans. The most considerable intercourse is with Canton, Hainan Island, and Fokien, but a trade also subsists with the more northerly provinces of Chi Kiang and King-nan. The export to Cambodia and Cochin China is confined to the

ports of Cancao, and iron in all shapes is the chief commodity bartered. Hitherto the commerce with British India has been principally conducted from Bombay and Surat, the supercargoes most commonly being usually either Mahomedans or Parsees; bringing gold and silver, silk tissues, and printed cloths, carrying away in return benzoin, gamboge, eagle-wood, sapan-wood, and of late years sugar. In 1822 the native trade conducted exclusively by the Chinese amounted to 39,000 tons; the American trade was about 800 tons; that of British India about 1,000 tons; native and Malay trade about 1,000 tons; total 41,800 tons. The custom-house taxes consist of imposts levied on goods imported and exported and tonnage duties, professing to be *ad valorem*, but rudely estimated, and varying with different nations. Hitherto the chief obstacle to the promotion of commerce with Siam has been the government itself standing forward as the principal, indeed the only merchant, which in fact created a virtual monopoly of all goods; but it is said that since the accession of his present Majesty to the throne he has abandoned all trade on his own account.

Until recently the Siamese were not in the habit of carrying on foreign commerce in their own vessels, but at present they make voyages to China, the European settlements in the straits of Malacca, and even to Bengal, Ceylon, and Bombay. In fact the maritime advantages of Ceylon are considerable, the navigation of the gulf being easy, and its chief port safe, with a good depth of water. On the west coast are the three ports of Sangora, Ligor, and Bandon; at the head of the gulf are those of the three estuaries of the Menam river, in which the tide reciprocates. The two western branches are shallow, but the eastern, on the banks of which Bankok stands, is navigable for all vessels not exceeding 250 tons. The eastern coast of the gulf is so studded with islands, separated by navigable channels and safe anchorage, that the whole space may be described as one continued harbour.

Inland Siam contains mines of iron, tin, copper, lead, and gold. Those of iron are said to be situated 209 miles north from the mouth of the river, where it is imperfectly smelted on the spot by the Chinese, and afterwards transported to the capital, where culinary and other vessels are fabricated, and form a considerable article of exportation to the archipelago, Cambodia, and Cochin China. A pecul of common bar-iron costs only four rupees. Tin is very generally diffused through some of the provinces, and about 500 tons are annually exported; but as it has not yet attracted the attention of the industrious Chinese, it probably can be had cheaper elsewhere. Salt is exported by the Dutch in considerable quantities from Siam to Batavia.

The domesticated animals of Siam are much the same as those of Hindostan, and in the jungles are tigers, elephants, and rhinoceroses, but there are not any jackals, rabbits, or hares. The cows give but little milk, which is mostly supplied by female buffaloes, neither have the natives learned the art of converting it into butter. The horses are a very inferior race, the best being imported from Java. In 1820 the sovereign of Siam possessed three white elephants, in that respect greatly surpassing his Burmese Majesty. This animal is an occasional variety of the species, and corectly speaking, is an albino, but with the organs of sight natural and sound, and no way averse to the effect of light, yet the iris is of a purely white colour. The hairs of the body are yellowish, but more scanty, finer, and shorter than that of common elephants. The colour and texture of the skin never appears entirely healthy, being deformed with glandular knobs, and the wrinkles of some acrid fluid which they secrete. They are usually small in size, but being well fed, are generally in good condition as to corpulence. The discovery of one is reckoned a most

important event, auspicious to the discoverer, and indicating prosperity to the nation. Albino buffaloes, deer, monkeys, and even porpoises, are not uncommon in Siam. Royal tigers abound, and their bones are exported by the Chinese, who are said to use them medicinally, at least they may be seen suspended in every apothecary's shop in Bankok. The sea and rivers swarm with excellent fish, upon which a large proportion of the lower classes subsist. In addition to these are fine lobsters, turtle of a good quality, and the mangoe-fish so much esteemed in Calcutta. The excellent sauce or seasoning named balachong is best procured here, where it is composed of dried shrimps, pepper, salt, and sea-weed, beaten together to the consistence of a tough paste, and then packed in jars for sale.

The constitution of Siam is a pure despotism, there being no hereditary nobility or legislative body of any description to control the king's actions. Indeed, so sacred is his character that his name must not be uttered, and is in fact known to few, even of the principal ministers. His body is supposed to be the seat of a soul in a highly advanced stage towards final absorption, and of course exempted from all bodily infirmities and evacuations. On one particular day, however, in order to conciliate deities superior to himself, he stands on one foot for an hour. All the inhabitants are liable to be called out for military service, so that very few standing troops are maintained. Their arms are matchlocks, always in a bad condition, spears, and creeses. They manufacture gunpowder, but it is of so inferior a quality that great quantities are imported. Their fortifications are stockades of trees and posts, surrounded by a ditch, but the natural obstacles presented to invaders by the jungles, morasses, numerous branches of rivers, and the general unhealthiness of the climate, soon thin the ranks of a hostile army. A small part of the taxes is levied in money, but much the greater part of the revenue has hitherto been received in kind, and realized by sale to foreign traders. In 1826, exclusive of extortions, they amounted to about £700,000 sterling. In 1750 the population was computed by the French missionaries at 1,900,000, but apparently without any foundation for the estimate. Unlike their neighbours the Malays, the Siamese have the utmost aversion to quit their homes, and consequently have made few maritime excursions, and planted no colonies. In 1826 the Chinese throughout the whole kingdom were estimated at 150,000 persons, Bankok alone containing above 30,000.

The Siamese nation, properly so called, consists of two races; the T'hay and the T'hay J'hay. They distinguish themselves by the appellation of T'hay; by the Burmese they are named Shan, and by the Chinese, Malays and Europeans, Siam. Their former capital was named Yuthia or Yoodra, from which circumstance by the Birmans of Ava they are frequently called Yoodras. In their manners and customs they greatly resemble the Burmese, but possess a still more extravagant share of national vanity and self-importance, approaching almost to insanity. Their ministers have long been notorious for their want of veracity, and Capt. Burney says that indefatigable lying forms an essential part of a Siamese statesman's duty, while they are equally incredulous of all other diplomatists.

The females of Siam are obliged to drudge in all laborious employments, for by them the woods are cleared, the earth cultivated, and the harvest reaped. Both males and females take as much pains to blacken their teeth as Europeans do to preserve them white. The men eradicate their beards, but allow their nails to lengthen like the Chinese. They are extremely gross feeders, in which they resemble all nations east of the Ganges. Among their edibles are rats, lizards, grasshoppers, and other insects, disgusting to the natives of Hindostan. Their houses are raised on posts, and are entered by a ladder

from the outside. Their temples are of a pyramidical form, generally a quadrangular one, of solid brick and timber, and differ from the sepulchral edifices of the Buddhists of Ceylon, named dagoba, which has a dome. Their statuary is quite characteristic of their religion, being confined to one single form of Buddha. Like all the other semi-barbarous nations in this quarter of the globe, their artists in gold are remarkably expert, and their fillagree-work singularly beautiful. They excel also in beating out gold leaf, of which a great deal is expended in adorning their temples and idols. The Chinese practitionaries, who are their chief physicians, have long been accustomed to the use of the bath in fever, and their system is, no cure no pay. The common people are so fond of singing that the missionaries found the best way of imprinting their precepts on their memories was to form them into short Latin songs, adapted to popular tunes. They have a great variety of musical instruments, but all disagreeable to a European ear; of the instrumental music of the latter they prefer the organ on account of the loudness of its melody, and were much attracted by it to the Roman Catholic churches. Time is still measured by vessels having a small hole perforated in the bottom, and placed in a tub of water, the construction of clocks being beyond their mechanical powers.

The T'hay language is that used by the Siamese, who in their own tongue assume the word T'hay as their national appellation. It appears to be in a great measure original, and is purely monosyllabic, but more powerfully accented than any of the other Indo-Chinese languages. Their alphabet consists of thirty-seven consonants, fourteen vowels, and six diphthongs, all variously modulated in sound and intonation. In this dialect they possess many songs, poems, and [illegible], or historical and mythological fables. Many of the Siamese princes have been celebrated for their poetic powers, and several of their historical and moral compositions are still preserved. In their romantic fictions the personages introduced, with the exception of Rama and the heroes of the Ramayuna, have seldom much affinity to those of the Brahmins. On the eastern side of the peninsula the Siamese prevails as far south as Patani, where it meets the Malay.

The national religion of Siam is that of Buddha, but all sects are tolerated. The abstract doctrines of the Siamese faith are singularly severe, and admit of no indulgencies whatever; but the bulk of the people are persuaded that rigid virtue and perfection are not prescribed to them, but only to their priests, on whose austerities and mortifications they rely for their own salvation. Their prohibition from the shedding of blood, so far from influencing their conduct to the side of mercy, appears to have the contrary effect, of all nations Buddhists being the most ferocious, cruel, and bloodthirsty, holding human life as nothing. Indeed, it has been justly observed that in whatever nations the pure Buddhist faith continues paramount, they hold a secondary rank, both in power and intellect, and never advance in either. At present the worship of Buddha is nearly universal from Bengal to Cochin-China. It appears identical with that of Ceylon, but differs from the Buddhism of Tartary, Hindostan, China, Japan, and Cochin-China. The leading doctrine is the transmigration of the soul, and Ni-ri-pan (Nirvana), or ultimate absorption into the essence of the deity. The above term signifies also all-extinguished, and the notion attached to it seems to be that of an imperturbable apathy, or condition of unmixed tranquil happiness, which can hardly be said to differ from eternal sleep. The priests have neither rank, influence, nor endowments, the sovereign being the real head of the church, and himself an incarnation of Buddha.

The first French missionaries reached Siam in A.D. [illegible], after a [illegible] painful and arduous journey [illegible]

to the bay of Bengal, where they embarked; but prior to this, the Christian religion had made some progress so early as 1621, through the medium of the Portuguese. The French mission was subsequently prosecuted with great zeal for more than a century, and was occasionally assisted by political emergencies, but no essential progress was ever made towards effecting the benevolent intentions of the missionaries.

The Siamese histories of the T'hay dynasty are said to detail with much minuteness and great exaggeration the events that have occurred in Siam, and the adjacent states and countries, during the last 1,000 years, and also the events prior to that period from the building of the city Maha Nakkon, but with less circumstantial detail. The records of the other dynasty, the T'hay J'hay, are supposed still to exist. Notwithstanding these documents, the Siamese nation was wholly unknown to Europe until the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. The first traces of their authentic history began about A.D. 1550, and were acquired by adventurers of the Portuguese nation, who frequently acted as auxiliaries to the factions contending for the government. From the annals of the East-India Company it appears, that in 1684 their commerce sustained considerable losses by a Mr. Constantine Faulcon (a Cephalonian Greek), one of their inferior servants, who ran away in their debt, and obtained possession of their property by making presents to the King of Siam, whose prime minister he afterwards became.

In 1684 ambassadors were sent from Siam to Louis XIV., on board of an English vessel, in consequence of which Messrs. Cerberet and La Loubere were despatched on a diplomatic mission to Siam, where they arrived on the 27th of September 1687, and immediately solicited the king to embrace the Roman Catholic religion, in which request they were the more urgent, as an envoy had just arrived from the court of Persia, in order to convert him to the Mahomedan faith. The Siamese monarch declined both of the proposed conversions, but entered into a strict alliance with the French, whom he allowed to garrison Bankok and Mergui, the two most important havens in his dominions. This intimacy, however, was of short duration, for in 1688, by a sudden revolution, the king was dethroned and murdered, Faulcon executed, and the French expelled.

From this date Siam experienced much internal discord, and many sanguinary massacres, which seem to be the natural condition of such communities, periods of tranquillity being merely exceptions to the general rule. It remained, however, exempt from any serious external annoyance until 1754, when in consequence of the conquest of Pegu, the Birman dominions came in contact with those of Siam. War immediately ensued, and with a few short intervals has continued ever since. In 1767 the Burmese, under Alompra, captured Yuthia, the then capital, pillaged and burned it, extirpated the royal family, carried many of the inhabitants into slavery, and left the country almost a wilderness. In 1769 Piatak, the son of a wealthy China-man, collected some troops and expelled the Burmese from all their conquests except the provinces now belonging to the British along the bay of Bengal, and subsequently extended his dominions by the subjugation of several petty Malay states, and the conquest of Chantibun in Cambodia. Becoming insane about 1782, he was dethroned and beaten to death with a club of sandal-wood, a mode of execution exclusively royal, and thrown into the Menam. He was succeeded by the first sovereign of the present dynasty, who reigned until 1809, when the late king ascended the throne, where he remained until the 20th July 1824, when he died after a few days' illness. On the same day his eldest but illegitimate son, prince Kroma Chiat, ascended the throne

without massacre, convulsion, or bloodshed, a rare event in the annals of Siam.

In 1821 a mission from Bengal under Mr. Crawfurd was despatched to Siam: but it was received with great jealousy and distrust, and little positive advantage gained, but the foundation was laid of a friendly intercourse, and knowledge acquired tending greatly to facilitate any future attempt under more favourable circumstances. This soon occurred, for the Siamese, during the late Burmese war, volunteered their alliance against their old and inveterate enemy, but during the whole course of it, so far from being of the least service, exhibited a conduct in the highest degree equivocal and suspicious, employing their troops solely in the kidnapping of the unfortunate peasantry of the present British provinces south of Rangoon. Capt. Burney was in consequence despatched to procure their liberation, which, after much lying and evasion on the part of the Siamese cabinet, he effected to the number of above nine hundred, but they refused to restore our old ally, the dethroned king of Queda, to his dominions. Some commercial advantages were also gained by the treaty of 1827, and many restrictions removed, the Siamese admitting Khek and Chin to travel through the interior of their territories from Tenasserim and the adjacent British provinces. Khek and Chin in the original treaty have been translated into "Asiatic subjects of Great Britain not being Burmese, Peguers, or descendants of Europeans," and all British subjects may proceed by sea to any Siamese port.—(*Crawfurd, Burney, Singapoor Chronicle, Finlayson, Turpin, Leyden, Elmore, Symes, &c.*)

Siam Town.—See Yuthia.

Siampa (*or Champa*).—A small state of India beyond the Ganges, partly situated on the eastern coast of the gulf of Siam, and formerly an independent kingdom, but for above twenty years past subject to Cochin China, of which empire it at present forms the southernmost province. As yet its geographical features are very little known, but the lower part is described as a level champaign country, much intersected by the Donnai river and its numerous branches. In the Javanese annals Siampa is mentioned as an independent state so early as A.D. 1478, and apparently was then inhabited by Buddhists. At present there is a considerable Mahomedan population, who speak a dialect of the Malay, and are said to be the ruling sect.

In 1824 a small junk arrived at Singapore from Cambodia, the crew and owners of which were part of a colony settled there, but who originally came from the country of Siampa. In their new country (Cambodia) they had mixed with the Malays, and adopted their religion, in consequence of which they spoke both their own language (the Champa) and the Malay. Very little of the interior of this country is as yet known, but images of Hindoo deities have been imported from thence *via* Cambodia, and there is reason to believe that Hindooism, similar to what formerly existed in Java, now exists in the inland parts of the province, the inhabitants of which are conjectured to be a branch of the great Lao nation.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Siao Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, about thirty-five miles in circumference, situated off the north-eastern extremity of the island of Celebes; lat. 2° 48′ N., lon. 125° 5′ E. On this island there is a volcano, which during its eruptions covers the neighbouring islands with cinders. The land is high but fruitful, and provisions are cheap. The Dutch had formerly a small garrison here, which has been long withdrawn.—(*Sonnerat, Forrest, &c.*)

Sibnibas (*Sivanivasa*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Nuddea, sixty-four miles N.N.E. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 88° 49′ E. There is a short passage for boats from the north to Calcutta past this place, during the greater

part of the year, and a toll is levied near the entrance of the creek where it branches off from the Issamutty, to defray the expense of keeping it navigable. At Sibnibas are the ruins of a palace formerly belonging to the Nuddea rajas, and near it are several pagodas in a better style of architecture than is usually seen in the lower parts of Bengal.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SIBUYAN ISLE.—A small island, one of the Philippines, from thirty to forty miles in circumference, and situated due south of Luzon; lat 12° 30′ N., lon. 122° 30′ E.

SICACOLE.—See CICACOLE.

SICLYGULLY (*sancri guli, the narrow pass*).—A celebrated pass in the province of Bengal, about twenty miles N.W. from Rajamahal, which marks the boundary of the Bengal and Bahar provinces; lat. 25° 12′ N., lon. 87°40′ E. This pass, during the Hindoo and Mahomedan governments, was the commanding entrance from Bahar into the kingdom of Bengal, and was fortified with a strong wall, which does not appear, however, to have been of any real service, as in 1742 a Maharatta army consisting of cavalry penetrated into Bengal to the S.W. of this pass, through the hills above Colgong. In 1824 Siclygully was a little town, or rather village of straw huts, with the ruinous bungalow and barracks of Mr. Cleveland's corps, situated at the base of a high rocky eminence at an angle of the Ganges, and commanding a fine view of two ranges of hills.—(*F. Buchanan, Bishop Heber, &c.*)

SIDOUT (*Siddhavat*).—A hilly division of the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, situated among the Eastern Ghauts, between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude. Its surface is rocky and mountainous, but interspersed with rocky vallies, watered by perennial streams from the hills. It is also traversed in part by the river Pennar, the bed of which during the hot and dry season is planted with melons, which, when ripe, are sent to the Coromandel coast, where they are greatly est[eem]ed. In this portion of the Br[itish] dominions many of the rajas, [poli]gars, and other native chiefs [have] lost their estates since the soverei[gnty] was transferred in A.D. 1800. An[ong] these persons is the Chitiohel [raja,] whose family was formerly in pos[ses]sion of the country from the ne[igh]bourhood of Sidout to the Bal[...] pass. The general language is Telinga.

SIDOUT.—A town in the Balag[haut] Ceded Districts, about twelve mil[es] the east of Cuddapah; lat. 14°3[0′] lon. 79° 2′ E. On the south si[de] the river Pennaur the range of [...] extends along close to the bank, about one mile and a half from [the] northern face of the fort there [is] a chain of mountains, which c[onti]nues with very little interruptio[n as] far as Perwuttum, and into th[e Ni]zam's territories. The river her[e, in] the driest season, contains a [...] current sufficient for the custo[mary] ablutions of the Hindoos, who [have] several small temples; and the [...]ways to the east and west are [orna]mented with stone choultries.

The walls round the fort a[re of] stone, high, and in a state of suffi[cient] repair, and there is a rampart of [...] breadth all round the interior. [The] gateways to the westward are [...] but the one on the eastern side, [be]yond which there is a modern [...] said to have been built by the Fr[ench,] has been built up. There is a [...] ditch round three sides of the [fort,] which can be filled in the rainy [sea]son when the river is full. Th[e for]tifications of Sidout are said to [have] been erected by the Matlawar o[r Chi]tihel rajas, and appears to have [been] originally a fortified pagoda, dedi[cated] to Siddheswara Swami, but only [frag]ments of the religious edifice remain. It became the residen[ce of] the Cuddapah nabobs on their [being] threatened with the Mysore p[ower,] as besides the strength of the [fort] (which is, however, command[ed by] some of the neighbouring hills[, the] country generally is of difficult a[ccess]

The town or pettah surrounding the fort was then extensive, and it continued a populous and thriving place until the removal of the collector's office to Cuddapah. Haleem Khan, the last nabob of the Miiri line, resided here when Hyder took the fort, and carried the family of the nabob into captivity. Sidout has the reputation of being healthily situated, and is rather a favourite residence with the natives. The tomb in the inner fort is held in great reverence by the Mahomedans, and both it and its mosque are favourable specimens of Mussulman architecture.—(*Newnham, &c.*)

SIDOWRA.—A town in the province of Delhi, fourteen miles S.S.W. from Nahan; lat. 30°23′ N., lon. 77°12′ E.

SIDPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the north side of the Serenwati, sixty-eight miles N.N.W. from Ahmedabad, and twenty-eight from Mehsani, on the road from the south to Palhanpoor; lat. 23° 55′ N., lon. 72° 19′ E. It is tributary to the Guicowar. —(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SIKAR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, seventy miles N.W. from Jeypoor; lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 74° 45′ E.

SIKKIM.— The ancient limits of this principality are uncertain; but according to native authorities they were separated from the Chinese dominions in Tibet by a ridge of mountains called Khawa Karpola, or the mountains white with snow, while further down the Conki formed the boundary to the west until it reached the plain, where the whole tract of low country belonged to the Morung or Vijayapoor raja, and after his fall to the Gorkhas. Between the Mahananda and the Teesta the Sikkim raja possessed a low tract seven or eight miles wide, inhabited by the Cooch tribe, and cultivated with the plough. Such were its ancient dominions, but since its recent connexion with the British government Sikkim has received, what all native states receive unwillingly, a compact and well-defined boundary. To the north it is separated by the Himalaya mountains from Chinese Tartary; on the south it has the Nepaulese of Morung, and the Bengal district of Rungpoor; to the east it is separated from the Deb raja of Bootan's territory by the course of the eastern branch of the Teesta river; and on the west from those of Nepaul by the Conki river. In length it may be estimated at sixty miles, by forty the average breadth. Except a small section of the plain, the whole of this country is situated among hills, and its productions, vegetable and mineral, entirely resemble those of the Nepaul territories, which are similarly situated with respect to latitude, elevation, and climate.

According to native authorities there are on the Conki river two marts named Bilasi and Majhoya, to which the traders from the plain carry rice, salt, extract of sugar-cane, hogs, dry-fish, tobacco, spirituous liquor, and various cloths. Before the Gorkha conquest they also took oxen for slaughter; but that tribe being Hindoos prohibited such sacrilege. From the mountaineers the traders procured in return cotton, Indian madder, musk, and Tibet cow and bull tails. At Dimali, on the Balakongyar river, there is a mart or custom-house consisting of a square surrounded by buildings, into which the merchants and their commodities are received, there being no other permanent buildings except those of the collector and his assistants. To this place dealers from the low country take up salt, tobacco, cotton cloths, goats, fowls, swine, iron, and occasionally broadcloth, and in return bring back munjeet or Indian madder, cotton, bees'-wax, blankets, horses, musk, cow and bull tails, Chinese flowered silks, and rhinoceros' horns.

North from Dimali half a day's journey, according to the same informants, on a hill near the source of the Balakongyar, was the residence of Yu-kang-ta, the Lepcha chief, who formerly collected the

duties for the Gorkhas. By the natives of Sikkim it is named Samdung, but by the Bengalese Nagreecote; east from which two days' journey, near the source of the Mahananda, there is said to be another gola or mart, now much neglected. The greater part of Sikkim is included between the two arms of the Teesta, where the soil is watered by different branches of that river, the space forming a sort of valley; and although the whole is extremely mountainous, yet there is much cultivation carried on, the principal articles being rice and Indian madder or munjeet. Beyond Samdung and Satang one day's journey, and on the other side of the first high mountains, is Darjiling, which appears to have been one of the most important strongholds of the country, as it was selected by the Gorkhas for their principal military station. From hence to Sikkim the capital is six days' journey, and the snowy mountains are said to be about the same distance still further north.

In 1809 the Sikkim raja, besides the petty territory of Gandhauk, or Gamtoo, bounded on the west by the western branch of the Teesta, possessed a small portion beyond the lesser or eastern Teesta, which, however, rather formed the general boundary between his lands and those of the Deb raja of Bootan. According to tradition, the Sikkim state had at one time overrun a great part of the country bordering on Rungpoor, and probably then compelled the Bykantpoor zemindar to abandon the forest and seek refuge further south. In 1772 the latter was found in firm alliance with the Bootan government against the common enemy. The inhabitants of this principality consist almost entirely of the Lapcha tribe, the country being named Sikkim or Sikkim Bhote from the name of its capital, and from its being subject to a Bhootea chief. These Lapchas may be considered the fourth of the more important tribes to the east of the Nepaul valley, and in their manners much resemble the Kirauts; but instead of having chosen a Rajpoot chief, they appear to have selected for their leader a native of Tibet, in consequence of which the Lama doctrines have made considerable progress among them. The Lapchas eat beef, pork, and every other aliment reckoned detestable by the Brahminical Hindoos, and drink ardent spirits to excess; neither do they marry their females until they have attained the years of maturity. The men were formerly (and probably still are) armed with swords and bows, from which last they discharged poisoned arrows. Spears were not used, as being ill suited to a country covered with dense jungles, where men cannot march in compact order. They have a few matchlock muskets, but mostly too large to be fired without a rest. Besides the Bhooteas, who are principally attached to the chiefs, and the Lapchas by whom he is guarded, the hills of Sikkim are said to contain many people of the Limboo tribe. The Lama religion, although far from universal, is decidedly the most prevalent, and the partial incarnations of the deity in the bodies of inspired Lamas of such frequent occurrence, that in 1809, within the limits of the Lapcha and Kiraut countries, there were no less than twelve existing at the same time.

The princes of Sikkim, predecessors of the present raja, were Bhooteas, said to be sprung from a high family at Lassa, who took the title of Gelpo. But although the chief be of Bhootea origin, the strength of the Sikkim army has always consisted of Lapchas, the Bhooteas being naturally a very timid race, quite stupified by the enervating influence of what they call religion. The Lapchas, on the other hand, continue a set of vigorous, beef-eating barbarians, of whom only about one-half have been deluded by the monkish austerities and superior learning of the Lamas. Formerly the second dignitary in the state was the hang, or chief of the Lapchas, who probably was the real sovereign in temporal affairs, the Gelpo presiding in matters of religion. It is not known how

many princes succeeded to the throne of Sikkim, but it is probable the Bhooteeas have been paramount in the country a considerable time. The chief who governed Sikkim prior to 1782 by the natives of Bengal was named Roop Chiring, whose residence was at Darjiling, where he had a strong house built of brick, and much admired in that region. This prince died about 1782, and was succeeded by his son Chawa Raja, which is the title given by the people of the country to the heir apparent.

In A.D. 1788 the Gorkhas invaded Sikkim with an army of about 6,000 men, of whom 2,000 were regulars, the whole commanded by Tierar Singh, the soubah of the Morung. This officer received no opposition until he approached the capital, in defence of which the raja ventured a battle, when after a desperate resistance he was completely defeated, owing probably to the fire of the Gorkha musketeers, who also sustained a considerable loss, yet were immediately after able to besiege the town. All these events took place at some period prior to the 28th of October 1788. After experiencing this disaster the raja retired towards the frontiers of Tibet, in order to re-assemble an army, and to solicit assistance from the Deb raja of Bootan and the pontiff Lama of Lassa. With the first a treaty was soon concluded, by the conditions of which the Sikkim chief engaged to pay a tribute to the Bootan raja if through his exertions he succeeded in recovering his dominions; and being in consequence reinforced by a considerable detachment of Bootanners, and also by a party of Bhooteas from a Tibet province named Portaw, he returned towards his capital about the beginning of December. His approach compelled the Gorkhas to raise the siege, and after losing many men in a skirmish they retired towards Ilam on the Conki, where they erected forts to secure a communication with the Morung.

It is probable that about this period the Sikkim raja died, leaving his son, Kurin Namki, an infant. The war was then conducted by Yuk-suthuk, the hang, or chief, of the Lapchas, who was next in rank to the raja, while the metropolis was defended by the hang's brother, Namoi, named by the Bengalese Lamjit. Early in 1789 the Bootanners retired, probably for want of pay or plunder, and the greater part of the people of Sikkim submitted quietly to the Gorkha yoke, while the dethroned raja fled to Tankiya in Tibet, and the hang of the Lapchas retreated to a stronghold, situated between two branches of the Teesta, from whence he ever after annoyed the invaders of his country. This place, named Gandhauk or Gamtoo, has a territory annexed to it of considerable extent, which afforded the raja an income of 7,000 rupees per annum; but being a man of high birth, he obtained in marriage the daughter of the chief minister at Lassa, with whom in 1809 he returned to the petty dominion which the energy of his minister (the hang) had preserved.

Both the dharma, or sacerdotal raja of Bootan, and the pontiff of Lassa were now seriously alarmed by the progress of the Gorkhas, and applied to the emperor of China for his interposition. This proved effectual in securing the Bootan chief; but the Tibetians were obliged to cede to the Gorkhas the province of Kutti, which still forms the government of Kheroo, at the head of the Sancosi, near the Arun, and comprehended in the district of Chayenpoor. The Lapchas, however, notwithstanding the apparent desperation of their affairs, continued to give the Gorkhas so much trouble, that at last, as a measure of policy, they consented to give them a governor of their own tribe, who in 1806 continued to exercise the whole civil authority, paying an annual tribute to the government at Catmandoo. In military matters he was subordinate to the soubah of Chayenpoor, and Gorkha garrisons were established in Sikkim and Darjiling, the two principal stations of the district.

The affairs of Sikkim continued in this unsatisfactory state until the rupture with the Gorkhas in 1814, when the raja immediately declared against them, and acted the part of a faithful, and, according to the extent of his resources, a useful ally to the British nation. At the pacification of 1816 he was in consequence rewarded by the recovery of a considerable portion of his territory within the hills, to which the Bengal government added a tract of low land, ceded by the Gorkhas, to the east of the Mutchee river. This last-mentioned section is a slip of land about twelve or fourteen miles in breadth, reckoning from the base of the hills, and very thinly inhabited. Only detached portions are cultivated, being separated from each other by forests, which are altogether impassable during the rainy season. The land under actual tillage is extremely fertile, and capable of yielding any crop; but at present its produce is chiefly confined to rice, oil seeds, and a few other articles of small note and quantity. The scanty population may be accounted for partly by the insalubrity of the climate, but more especially from its having been the extreme point eastward to which the Gorkhas extended their conquests, and the very spot where the last struggle took place between the Gorkha soubah of Morung and the Sikkim authorities. These military operations lasted two campaigns, and compelled most of the inhabitants to seek an asylum within the British provinces. In consequence of these unfavourable circumstances the whole of Nizamtarah became depopulated, after the Lapchas attacked the Gorkhas on the 3d of February 1816, nor could any of the expatriated natives be induced to return until it was ascertained that the tract had been ceded to the British. The same process, although not to so aggravated a degree, took place in the pergunnah of Hatizusah.

Besides the land revenue the Gorkhas had other fiscal resources, such as a payment for permission to graze cattle, which tax, after the tract came into the British was farmed for one year at 2,500 rupees. The next extra branch was from the forests, which of course varied according to the demand for timber; but the forests to the east of the Mutchee, with the exception of those due north of Bykantpoor, are not valuable, so that the whole profit from this source was quite insignificant. The other items, such as a tax for permission to gather berries and to catch parrots, were also petty and vexatious, the first-mentioned monopoly yielding only ninety rupees per annum. The unicorn, so long considered as a fabulous animal, is said to exist in the alpine regions of this province; but not having been yet caught, has hitherto escaped taxation.

From the information collected by the British functionaries while the settlements were under consideration, it appeared that a tract of low country was absolutely necessary for the comfort and subsistence of the inhabitants of the high lands; but owing to physical circumstances, considerable difficulties occurred in the arrangement of the boundaries. The river Mutchee, at a very short distance before it enters the British territory, is separated into two branches, the old and the new Mutchee, and the difficulty referred principally to the small tract lying between the two branches, which is called Kopaulastie. If the old Mutchee formed the frontier, all communication between the Nepaulese Morung and the lands of the Sikkim raja would be prevented, the country to the westward of that stream being for a considerable distance an impenetrable forest, extending to the hills and without inhabitants; whereas had any part of Kopaulastie been retained by the Gorkhas, it would have proved an interminable source of dispute with the adjoining governments. Its annexation to the Bengal presidency was at one time recommended; but the distance of the tract in question from the seat of authority at Rungpoor, and the entire ignorance of the people reg ding the local observances

within the British boundaries, rendered the adoption of this measure of very doubtful advantage. The whole was in consequence conferred on the Sikkim raja, to be held by him exempt from any tribute, and subject to no other condition than those which would attach to the general relations established with that petty state. The stipulations on which the tract within the hills were restored to the Sikkim raja were: a cessation of all aggression on his part against the Gorkhas; the employment of his military power and resources in aid of the British troops when engaged among the hills; the exclusion of Europeans; the surrender of criminals, and the protection of legal commerce.

While these discussions were pending, much embarrassment was experienced by Capt. Latter, the British commissioner, in communicating in a language not understood by any European, or even native inhabitant of the old provinces. The policy of supporting and strengthening the Sikkim principality was sufficiently obvious, but the mere cession of the hill-country, without the annexation of some of the low land, would not have accomplished the object, the latter being indispensable for the subsistence of the Lapcha garrisons. Neither were the inhabitants by these arrangements transferred to a foreign power, but to the control of their original rulers, whose authority, notwithstanding the Gorkha usurpation, had never been wholly abrogated; all public orders having invariably had the joint seal of the Sikkim raja's dewan and the Gorkha soubah of Naggree.

As may be supposed, from the geographical position of his dominions as well as the bond of a common religion, the Sikkim raja has always been closely connected with the Lamas of Lassa and Teshoo Loomboo, with the Deb raja of Bootan, and occasionally has maintained a diplomatic intercourse with the mighty empire of China. Latterly this interchange of couriers has increased, the Chinese functionaries in Tibet feeling uneasy qualms at their unexpected contact with the British. On the 8th of August 1816 two Chinese envoys, of a rank answering to that of soubahdar in the Bengal army, arrived at the court of the Sikkim raja, accompanied by seventeen followers. According to the information respecting them, collected by Capt. Latter, these persons had been despatched from Lassa by the Chinese viziers Tea Chang (or Te-chan-choon) for the purpose of inquiring if a letter, sent some time before by the viziers to the British government, had been forwarded to Calcutta, and also to ascertain the existing state of affairs throughout Northern Hindostan. To these ambassadors the Sikkim raja fully explained the nature of his recent connexion with the British government, informing them, that although his troops had joined the British against the Gorkhas, the allies meditated no hostile movement against any portion of the empire of China. Being well feasted, the envoys remained three days, and seemed much inclined to tarry longer; but the raja, desirous of getting rid of them, gained them over by a present of ready money, and prevailed on them to depart. The Sikkim raja has since been the channel through which various despatches have been transmitted from the Bengal government to the Chinese functionaries at Lassa.

The restoration of this state under the British protection and guarantee, will constitute a barrier against Gorkha ambition and enterprize in an eastern direction, and may eventually lead to an enlargement of our commercial relations with Tibet and Southern Tartary. It was well ascertained that the views of the Catmandoo cabinet had long been directed to this quarter, and there is no reason to suppose that the feeble states of Bootan and Assam could have resisted their arms. The reduction of these states, besides extending their territories along the British frontier, and thereby opening

new sources of dissension, would in process of time have led to a communication with the more distant empire of the Birmans, an event from which much embarrassment and contingent danger might have resulted. —(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Latter, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Sikkim (*or Damoo Jung*).—According to native information this place stands on the west side of the Jhamikuma river, which rises on the southern declivity of the snowy mountains, and opposite to the town separates into two branches, surrounding an immense mountain, on the top of which there is a small level, and a stronghold named Tasiding. The united streams, under the name of Remika, afterwards join the Teesta; lat. 27° 16′ N., lon. 88° 3′ E., 110 miles N. by E. from the town of Purneah.

Silani.—A village in Northern Hindostan, situated in the lowest range of mountains westward of the Kardeh doon, or valley, about four miles from the point where the Choorapani river opens into the plains. In this vicinity seams of coal have been discovered: it is slaty, brittle, and black, with a resinous lustre, and does not soil with the touch. It burns with a bituminous and sulphurous odour, and leaves behind a residue of a reddish colour.

Silhet (*Srihata, a rich market*).—A district in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the north-eastern extremity. On the north it is separated from Assam by an extensive range of mountains, some peaks of which are 6,000 feet above the level of the adjacent plains, and inhabited by Cosseahs and several other wild tribes, in various stages of barbarity. The principal passes into Assam are Luckhat, eighteen miles north from the town of Silhet, and Bhookoola, in Cachar. On the east Silhet is separated from the Burmese empire by the two small hill states of Munipoor and Cachar; an independent portion of the Tipperah raja's territory, inhabited by Kookies, bounds it on the south. The eastern and southern portions are hilly; but the northern, central, and western parts are flat, and submerged during the rains.

This is the most easterly of the British posessions in Hindostan, being within 350 miles of the province of Yunan, in China. The whole of the mountains and mountainous tract north-east of Silhet, until within a few miles of the Assam low country, named Cosseahs by Europeans, Khasiyas in Northern Hindostan, but who denominate themselves Khyer: they are described as a muscular race of men, armed with bows and arrows, long naked swords, and shields so large that they afford shelter from the rain. This tribe also occupy the hilly country from about half-way between Laour and Doorgapoor eastward as far as Cachar. They principally inhabit the southern portion of the mountainous tract, none of them, with the exception of the Gentiah family, having extended their possessions so far as the Assamese plains. Formerly they held the low lands in Silhet adjacent to the hills as far as the river Soormah; but they were expelled on account of their turbulence many years ago.

The Cosseah language differs from those of the Cacharies, Garrows, and other bordering tribes, who appear to use dialects having a common origin. They are also distinguished in their features by the absence of that peculiar conformation of eyelid which so strongly marks the Chinese, Burmese, and other Eastern nations of Tartar extraction. They are governed by a number of petty chiefs, with very limited authority, the most powerful of whom are the rajas of Salong (or Khyram) and Gentiah. They have no distinct written character, and for purposes of correspondence employ the Bengalese languages and scribes. They have adopted the Brahminical faith so far as to abstain from beef; but they eat pork and poultry, and get intoxicated with strong liquors. Their laws of inhe-

ritance resemble those of the Nairs of Malabar, descending to the nephew by the eldest sister of the party.

Under the Mogul government Silhet was formed into a foujdary, or military station, more on account of its remote and secluded situation beyond the Soormah and Brahmaputra than from any well-grounded apprehensions of foreign invasion, protected as it is by inaccessible hills or impenetrable jungles. Its actual dimensions since the dismemberment of several pergunnahs have been computed at 2,861 miles, divided into 146 small pergunnahs, held by an equal number of zemindars. Near to the town of Silhet the country presents a novel appearance to an eye long habituated to the flat surface of lower Bengal, being composed of various conical shaped hills, with broad bases, rising irregularly at short distances from each other, and covered with trees and verdure to the very summit, while to the north and east lofty mountains rise abruptly like a wall, and appear as if at some remote period they had withstood the surge of the ocean.

During the rains a great proportion of the land is laid under water by the overflowing of the Soormah and other rivers by which it is intersected, so that the passage from Dacca is performed for nearly the whole way over rice and pasture-fields, which in the cold season are many feet above the current of the rivers. Over this tract, when the floods are at their height, there is from eight to twelve feet of water; the elevated sites of the villages appear like islands; the vessels' masts are entangled among the branches of trees, while their progress is impeded by the matted thickness and adhesion of the paddy stalks. When the inundation drains off, the land is left in an excellent condition for rice cultivation, which species of food is usually so abundant, that in 1801 rice in the husk sold for fifteen rupees per one hundred maunds, of eighty pounds each, and coarser grains were still cheaper. In addition to this ample supply, every stream and puddle swarms with fish, which are caught in the most slovenly manner with a hand-net, or even a piece of old mat. Wages, as may be inferred, are consequently extremely low, being from half a rupee to one rupee and a half per month, every thing included; but the peasantry being naturally averse to exertion, and never working but when stimulated by the pangs or apprehensions of hunger, the soil is on the whole very indifferently cultivated.

The produce of Silhet, owing to the depression of the soil, and the swampy nature of a large proportion of the surface, is principally rice; the more costly articles of cotton and sugar are also raised, the first on the hills, the last on the more elevated spots of the different pergunnahs, but the quantity procured is scarcely sufficient to supply the wants of the district. Among the chief productions and staple commodities for exportation must be reckoned oranges and limes. The first are procured from extensive orange plantations, or rather forests, and the quantity annually exported is very great, Calcutta and many other remote parts being supplied from hence. The quality is inferior to the delicious fruit of Chandpoor on the great Megna in the Dacca district; but may vie with any other, and the price on the spot is frequently not more than one rupee per thousand. Something peculiar in the soil or climate would appear to be required to fit a place for the production of good oranges. In the whole extent of the British territories in Hindostan there are only three spots where good oranges are produced, *viz.* the district of Silhet, Chandpoor above described, and Sautghur at the foot of the Eastern Ghauts or passes leading up to Bangalore from Madras.

Chunam, or lime, is found in inexhaustible quantities among the boundary hills, accessible during the rains, from whence it is transported by the inland navigation to the most distant quarters of Bengal, but it is inferior to the beautiful shell chunam of the

Coromandel coast. A commerce in chunam, wax, ivory, and other articles, is carried on with the Cosseahs and other mountaineers on the eastern frontier. These were formerly monopolies; but in 1799 a general freedom in trade was proclaimed, subject to certain police regulations to prevent frauds and quarrels. The other productions of Silhet are aguru, or fragrant aloe wood, wild silk, and a cloth manufactured from it named Muggadooties. Great numbers of elephants are annually caught on government account, but they are reckoned inferior both in size and quality to those nearer the sea-coast, and of a more southern latitude. In 1814 coal was discovered to be abundant in the Laour hills, at first of a spurious kind and slaty fracture, but more recently the quality has so much improved that it has been forwarded to Calcutta for the use of the arsenal. The strata was found in the broken bank of a river for a considerable extent, and at distances of several miles. Shields made in Silhet have long been noted throughout India for the lustre and durability of the black varnish with which they are covered. This is composed of the expressed juice of the marking nut (the semicarpus anacardium), and another kindred fruit, the holigarnia longifolia, whose juices are resinous, being soluble in alcohol, but not at all in water. Silhet shields have long been a considerable article of export, being in request throughout Hindostan among such natives as still retain their ancient predeliction for the sword and buckler. Formerly large boats were built here for the royal Mogul fleet stationed at Dacca, and square-rigged vessels have since been occasionally constructed of timber, the growth of the country.

An establishment, named the Putwarry, exists in Silhet for the purpose of pointing out to individuals the lands they have bought at public sales, without which it would be extremely difficult for purchasers to discover and discriminate such property, the lands being scattered in small fragments through different villages. To this establishment the revenue officers are obliged to have recourse, to ascertain what lands are the just property of the state, the adjacent zemindars being always on the alert in appropriating such lands, unincumbered with the payment of any land-tax to the public treasury. In 1801, it was estimated that the produce of the rent-free lands was equal to about one-fourth of the whole jumma; and the lands exempted from taxation were then in the best condition. At that date the revenues of the whole district were collected in cowries, which were also the general medium of pecuniary transactions, and a considerable expense was annually incurred by government in effecting their conversion into bullion; but between that date and 1814, the circulation of this maritime currency had been so gradually decreasing, that in 1813, the whole of that year's revenue was realized in specie.

In Silhet there are no regular schools and seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahomedan law, but in different places there are private schools where boys are taught to read and write. Although so large a proportion of the whole population is Mahomedan, the mosques have been long going to ruin, while several paltry Hindoo temples have been erected, and a few merchants have exchanged their thatched dwellings for others of brick and mortar. In 1801, Mr. Ahmuty computed the inhabitants of Silhet at 188,245 men; 164,381 females, and 140,319 children, making a total of 492,945 persons, in the ratio of two Mahomedans to three Hindoos. Mr. Roberts, then judge and magistrate, was of opinion that his jurisdiction, although one of the smallest in Bengal, contained no less than 27,000 talookdars. The number of houses was estimated by the collector at 103,637; the boats belonging to the district at 23,000. During the Mogul dynasty, and even at a less distant period, children used to be purchased here as an article of commerce, and resold at Dacca and else-

where. Along the Silbet frontier towards the Cosseah (or Khasiya) mountains, there are several brick redoubts, with bastions at each end for the guards and ammunition; the whole built to repel the incursions of that uncivilized tribe, which has long infested the low countries in their vicinity. A guard from the Sebundy, or provincial battalion, is regularly stationed in each of the forts at Myaram, Bamgong, Chintislah, Kontakhal, and Punduah, and to them is entrusted the preservation of tranquillity on the frontier, where they are cantoned, and where they are periodically relieved by troops from head-quarters.

In 1798, the low country of Bungong, on the north-west side of the Soormah river was occupied by the Cosseah mountaineers, who scarcely ever paid the revenue due to government, the recovery of which was found to be impracticable, as the defaulters on any appearance of coercion fled to their native mountains which are inaccessible to a military force. They were expelled from the lands, but returned repeatedly and committed many murders. In 1814 a Cosseah council was convened among the hills, the subject of consideration being a dam which had been opened by the British peasantry, in revenge for which they determined to carry fire and sword into the pergunnah of Prerua. This resolution they carried into prompt execution, under the immediate command of their chiefs, and during the incursion destroyed two large villages and killed four unoffending cultivators of the soil. These atrocities were soon repressed, and the invaders driven back to their dens in the jungles; but their vicinity still continues a subject of doubt and anxiety to every public functionary in charge of the district. By one of these they are described as honest and fair in their dealings, and of strict veracity, but outrageously vindictive; in the three first qualities exhibiting a most striking contrast to their neighbours of Bengal. Occasionally they suffer arbitrary punishments and extortions from the inferior officers of government, who levy imposts of their own enactment on the traffic carried on between Silbet and the Cosseahs, with whose chiefs they have also been accused of carrying on a clandestine correspondence.

During the Mogul government this district furnished a considerable number of slaves and (as stated by Abul Fazel) eunuchs for the royal seraglio. The practice of inveigling away its free natives for the purpose of selling them at Dacca, Patna, Calcutta, and Moorshedabad, still continues, although from the vigilance of the British authorities the attempt is rarely successful. An authorized traffic in slaves has existed here from time immemorial; and one of the magistrates estimated this class at one-sixth of the whole population, progressively increasing by domestic propagation. The transfer of slaves takes place both with and without the consent of the slaves; but in the latter predicament only the mildest treatment can secure the purchaser any benefit from his acquisition. Occasionally the poorer descriptions of free inhabitants sell themselves when in extreme distress, and a few persons, principally slaves, are inveigled away by bazeegurs and wandering fakeers. Women also, of the poorer classes, both here and in the Backergunge district, when left widows, sell their children to procure food; some have been hereditary slaves for several generations, and are sold along with the estate on which they reside; others are imported from Cachar, Gentiah, and other territories beyond the limits of British jurisdiction

Prior to 1824 this district had enjoyed a long tranquillity, the peace of the country having never been disturbed, except by the attack on Gentiah, in 1774, and some insignificant disputes with the Cossyahs, in 1789 and 1798. In 1824, however, it became necessary to collect troops to guard against an invasion from the Birman empire, and latterly to become the aggressors, by invading and conquering the contiguous province of Cachar.—(*Ahmuty, Hayes, French,*

age, *Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Rennell, &c.)*

SILHET.—A town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district; lat. 24° 55′ N., lon. 91° 0′ E. The travelling distance from Calcutta to this place is computed by Major Rennell at 325 miles; but the direct distance does not exceed 60 miles.

SILINDUNG.—A Batta district in the island of Sumatra, situated inland from the bay of Tapanooly. This is an even plain ten or twelve miles long by about three broad, and when visited by Messrs. Burton and Ward in 1822, presented one vast unbroken field of rice cultivation. A fine broad river, with numberless tributaries, flowed through it, and water for irrigation was conducted also to the fields by artificial aqueducts. Many villages were scattered over its surface. This plain is surrounded by hills from 500 to 1,000 feet high, also under cultivation, and wholly free from jungle, except at some of the tops, said to be the abode of evil spirits.

The district of Silindung (or Toba Silindung) in 1822 contained eighty-two villages, the population of which was supposed to exceed 80,000 persons. The entrance to their houses is from a trap-door beneath, and the interior consists of one single room, thirty or forty feet by twenty, containing from thirty to fifty inmates. The space between the ceiling and the roof is used as a granary, and as a depôt for the skulls of their enemies. The soil consists chiefly of a light grey sand, strongly resembling that of Bengal. Rice and sweet potatoes are the principal articles of produce. The coco-nut is not seen beyond the second range of mountains inland. Neither tobacco nor cotton are raised, both being imported from Tapanooly. Cotton cloths are made and dyed by the females, and a superior kind of white pottery is made in the vicinity of the Lake Toba, adorned with glaze of various colours. Iron is readily wrought into choppers, large knives, spear-heads, &c. The matchlocks are procured from Menancabow, but the coarse gunpowder which they use is of their own manufacture. Large pipes of brass, and ornaments of gold, brass, iron, and sea-shells are wrought with great neatness; but the men generally lead an indolent life, and it seems rather wonderful that, with so much leisure to do evil, they do not commit more. They do not use opium, nor any intoxicating liquors except palm-wine; but they smoke an herb slightly narcotic, and tobacco eagerly, when they can get it. Their brass pipes are so large and strong, that they are occasionally used as weapons of offence.—(*Burton and Ward, &c.*)

SILLAHMEW.—A town in the province of Ava, which in 1795 was a large town, shaded by wide-spreading trees, embellished with temples, and remarkable for its manufactures of silk, the raw material for which was procured from the province of Yunan, in China; but when visited by the British mission in 1809 a very different picture was exhibited. The numerous pagodas and religious buildings still indicated the extent and former importance of the town; but with the exception of one old woman, not an inhabitant remained. A large proportion of the males had been conscribed for the Siamese war; and the town being left thus defenceless, fell an easy prey to the insurgent Nakónek, who completed its ruin.—(*Symes, Canning, &c.*)

SILLANAH.—A town in the province of Malwa. In 1819 the gross revenues of this chiefship amounted to 1,11,825 rupees, but were expected to exceed two lacks in 1824.

SILLAW.—A populous town in the province and district of Bahar, up to 1820 not noticed in any map. It stands about forty miles S.E. from Patna, and twelve from the city of Bahar.

SILLEEMUDDUN.—A village in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, fifty-three miles travelling dis-

tance S.E. from the city of Madura. Here is a handsome pillared choultry, with a fine reservoir in front.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SIMALACA.—A village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, situated on the great Juggernauth road, about thirty-three miles travelling distance S.S.W. from Balasore. There is a small bungalow here for the accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SIMMERRAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fifty-eight miles south from Teary; lat. 23° 55′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.

SIMLA.—A British station among the hills between the Sutuleje and Jumna, situated near Subhatoo, and elevated 7,200 feet above the level of the sea. Here some bungalows have been erected for the benefit of invalids, the temperature being healthy during the hot season, and the surrounding scenery magnificent. It was visited by Lord Amherst in 1827, who here received the rajas of Gurwal and Bussaher, and the rana of Joobul, and a complimentary mission from Runjeet Singh of Lahore.

SIMOGA (*Siva Mogay*).—A town in the Mysore raja's territories, 122 miles N.W. from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 56′ N., lon. 75° 41′ E. This place is fortified, but the works are not strong, although during the rains the river Tunga washes the eastern wall. In A.D. 1790 a battle was fought on the plains near Simoga, between Pursoram Bhow and Mahomed Reza, commonly called the Binky nabob, or burning lord, being, on account of his activity, generally employed by the sultan to lay waste the country. In this action the Maharattas scarcely took any part, the whole brunt of the engagement falling on a Bombay detachment under Capt. Little, which at the commencement of the battle mustered only 750 men. At this time Simoga contained 6,000 houses, the whole of which were destroyed by the Maharattas, the women ravished, and the handsomest carried away. Such of the men as fell into the hands of the Maharattas were killed; and of those who escaped the sword, a large proportion perished by hunger. These ruffians did not even spare the Kudali Swami, although the high-priest (gooroo) of all the Maharatta Brahmins of the Smartal sect, by whom he is considered an actual incarnation of the deity. They plundered and burned his matam, or college: which so enraged the pontiff, that he threatened them with excommunication, and was only pacified by a present from the Peshwa of 400,000 rupees, half of which Tippoo extorted from him, and paid to Lord Cornwallis, in part of the fine imposed at the treaty of Seringapatam.—(*F. Buchanan, Moor, &c.*)

SINCAPOOR.—See SINGAPOOR.

SINDE (*Sindhu*).—A principality in the ancient province of Moultan, which on account of its having for some years possessed a separate and independent government, has risen into political, and probably temporary importance. The general boundaries of this state, including Tatta, are Moultan and Afghanistan on the north; Cutch and the sea on the south; on the east it has Ajmeer, the sandy desert and Cutch; and on the west the sea and mountains of Baloochistan. The eastern limits of Sinde are particularly ill defined, but the late Capt. Macmurdo was of opinion they ought to be fixed by the channel of the Pooran, or ancient Indus, which may be said to separate Sinde from the desert. In length the dominions of the Sinde Ameers may be loosely estimated at 300 miles in length, by eighty the average breadth; and it is intersected diagonally throughout its whole extent by the river Indus. On the north Sinde adjoins the country of Bahawul Khan and the fort of Subzul. Proceeding from thence south are the possessions of many petty chiefs, usually tributary to the ameers of Sinde.

The plain of the Indus from the sea to Sungur is included in the Sinde dominions. Of this division

the portion extending from the sea to Shekarpoor is inhabited by Sindies under a native prince, tributary to the Cabul sovereign, and now generally named Sinde by the British; but in strictness it ought to be designated Lower Sinde, and from Shekarpoor inclusive to Sungur, Upper Sinde. The section to the west of the Indus is mostly inhabited by Baloochies; and with the exception of a small tract, north of Shekarpoor, is directly under the Cabul sovereign. East of the Indus Sinde Proper is a perfect level from its most northern boundary to the sea-shore, with the exception of two or three low hills called the Gunjah hills, on the island formed by the river on which Hyderabad, the capital, stands. West of the Indus from Sehwan (26° 7 N.) to the sea the face of the country varies, some parts being mountainous and others flat, and some interspersed with ranges of low hills. Northward from Sehwan the plains extend to the hills of Sewistan. The district of Chandookee, enclosed between the trunk of the Indus and a remarkable branch, is highly cultivated and very productive, and yields, even under its present misgovernment, eight lacks of rupees annually to the revenue. This branch of the great river diverges to the west, and after spreading over a wide tract, which at different seasons is either a marsh or a lake, it again joins the main stream seventy miles below the point of separation.

A great part of the province lying to the westward of where the monsoon ceases is a barren sterile soil, and totally unproductive, from the absence of moisture. Easterly from the meridian of 67° 40' E. the land near to the Indus appears capable of improvement; but to the northward of Tatta, and a small distance to the west of the river, the country is mountainous, barren, rocky, and uninhabited. In the months of June and July the thermometer ranges from 90° to 100°; but the air in Upper Sinde is so pure and so much refreshed by cooling breezes from the west, that the heat is never excessive. About Hyderabad the climate is healthy, and the air in the month of August remarkably clear, the difference of refraction in astronomical observations being scarcely perceptible.

The Indus from the city of Tatta to a branch called the Fulalee has from two to two and a half fathoms water; off Tatta it has three, four, and more frequently five fathoms, with a muddy bottom. Its banks in the vicinity of Hyderabad are generally well cultivated, except where the ameers have made enclosures to confine game; but these are so numerous and extensive as to occupy many of the most valuable spots of land. The cultivation of Sinde depends on the periodical rains and the process of irrigation by means of canals and watercourses. During the swelling of the rivers grains and other seeds are raised; the remainder of the year is employed in the cultivation of indigo, sugar-cane, huldee, &c. Every bega of land watered by a canal or wheel pays (1809) a revenue of from one and a quarter to three and a half rupees; one wheel is capable of watering sixteen begas. A duty of one rupee is levied on each khunwan (120 pounds) of grain reaped by the farmer, and the subsequent extortions on that and every other article of commerce or subsistence are enormous.

The principal articles of home produce exported from Sinde are rice, ghee, hides, shark-fins, potash, saltpetre, assafœtida, b'dellium, madder, frankincense, Tatta cloths, horses, indigo, oleaginous and other seeds. The exports from Sinde to Bombay are shark-fins and flesh, b'dellium, ghee, potash, saltpetre, hides, oil of sesame, wheat, assafœtida, munjeet, sirshif oil, raisins, almonds, colouring plants, pistachio-nuts and flowers, shawls, cloths, mustard, wild saffron, black cummin-seed from Kerman, white cummin-seed, and chintzes from Sinde and Khorasan. The imports to Sinde from Bombay are white sugar, sugar-candy steel, iron, tin, tutenague, lead, cochineal, betel-

nut, black pepper, dried coco-nuts, vermilion, red lead, quicksilver, Bengal and China raw silks and cloths, cinnamon, cardamoms, cloves, nutmeg, sandal-wood, ginger, china-ware, pearls, aloes, and amattas.

The intercourse between this territory and the provinces to the northward is chiefly carried on by means of the Indus, which is navigable for small vessels to a great distance from the sea. There are not any established land caravans from Sinde to Mooltan and Cabul, but an intercourse is carried on by travellers and merchants. The East-India Company had formerly a factory in Sinde, with which they carried on a considerable trade, but it was withdrawn, probably owing to the disorderly state and consequent poverty of the country; indeed commerce and agriculture of all descriptions have rapidly declined in Sinde since the accession of the present rapacious rulers. The duties levied on foreign and domestic trade are estimated at two-thirds of the capital employed, and the cultivator is compelled to sell his grain at a low price, to the government, by which it is monopolized, and subsequently re-sold at a considerable profit. In addition to this evil extensive tracts of the best land on the banks of the Indus are set apart and converted into wastes and jungles for the preservation of game, the ameers being, unfortunately for the country, most passionately addicted to hunting. The British mission in 1809 saw scarcely any thing deserving the name of cultivation from Corachie to Helliah, on the road to Hyderabad, a distance of 150 miles.

The internal government of Sinde is a military despotism. In 1809 the supreme authority was vested in three brothers of the Talpoory family, whose names were Meer Gholaum Ali, Meer Kurreem Ali, and Meer Murad Ali. The oldest brother, Meer Gholaum Ali, had the title of hakim or ruler of Sinde, and was considered the head of the government. There were two other brothers of the ruling family, Meer Sohrab and Meer Thara, who, although not ostensibly partakers of the supreme authority, possessed large tracts of territory, and exercised every function of sovereignty within their respective limits.

These ameers belong to the Mahomedan sect of Shiahs, but they are remarkably tolerant both to the Soonees and to the adherents of Brahma. The Mahomedan population compose the military strength of the country, and during pacific intervals are employed as husbandmen, artificers, and menial servants; the internal commerce being almost exclusively carried on by Hindoos. The great bulk of the population consists of Hindoos, Juts, and Baloochies. The Hindoos were probably the aborigines, the Juts the descendants of early converted Hindoos, and the Baloochies strangers. The majority of the Mahomedans are of the Soonee faith, although the ameers and some men of rank be Shiahs. Although Sinde is now but scantily peopled, it appears at some former period to have been much more thickly settled; and the great number of tombs and burial-grounds scattered over the country, where no population is now visible, is quite extraordinary. From Tatta to Hyderabad the country is almost destitute of human beings, there being only one village on the whole route.

Sinde is a province swarming with military adventurers, from whence the native powers of Hindostan have long been supplied with infantry mercenaries. The national armies of the principality are usually collected from various tribes, who hold lands on a military tenure from the ameers, at whose summons they are obliged to bring their respective quotas into the field. These tribes are reckoned forty-two in number, many of which have retained their distinctive appellations since the first Mahomedan invasion, when they consisted principally of adventurers from the lofty mountains of Baloochistan, except the Lokia and Jut races, which are both of Sindean origin. The ameers

of Sinde collectively can bring into the field an army of 36,000 men, composed of irregular cavalry, armed with matchlocks, swords and shields, and intended to act when required as infantry, the whole Sindean army being accustomed to dismount occasionally and fight on foot. The Sindean cavalry are but indifferently mounted, and although stouter, are not such good swordsmen as the natives of Upper Hindostan. The infantry resemble the Persians and Arabs, and, like most Hindostany soldiers, are overloaded with arms; besides a sword, shield and dagger, the cavalry carry matchlocks. Although the produce of Sinde be at present equal to three times the consumption of its inhabitants, it is nevertheless badly cultivated, thinly peopled, and wholly unequal to the subsistence of any formidable force. An invading army might be conveniently opposed on the banks of the Indus, and by proper precautions reduced to extreme distress for want of provisions; but it is not probable that any force of magnitude will ever select so barren and unpromising a route.

After the death of Meer Futteh Ali, his then surviving brothers divided the territorial possessions and revenues; the eldest, Meer Gholaum Ali, receiving one-half as the ostensible head of the government, and bound to defray the permanent civil and military expenses of the state. These charges, however, are inconsiderable, as during a cessation of hostilities very few soldiers are retained. As is the practice in many other Eastern principalities, the hoarding of treasure is a favourite maxim of state policy; the amount of specie in different forts is consequently supposed to be great, a very small proportion of what is received being ever permitted to enter again into circulation.

The districts subject to the authority of Meer Sohrab are situated in the north-eastern quarter of Sinde, and yield a revenue of about five lacks and a half of rupees per annum. His system of government is described as milder and more favourable to agriculture and commerce than that of the principal ameers; his troops were computed at from 4,000 to 5,000 men. The authority of Meer Tharah extends over districts east of the Indus; his revenue does not exceed three lacks of rupees, but his country is improving; his troops have been estimated at 6,000 men.

The men of Sinde are generally of a middle size, well-made, and stronger than the more southern natives of India. Their complexion is a dark tawny, with black eyes and eyebrows, and uncommonly good teeth; like the Seiks they allow their hair to grow, and wear such large turbans, that some of them contain eighty yards of muslin. A great majority of the Mahomedans are Soonees, and mostly of the Haneefee sect, but they have few religious prejudices. The females are distinguished for beauty of face and symmetry of person, yet they are not doomed to strict seclusion; and the dancing-girls of Sinde, in figure, manner, and appearance, greatly excel those of Upper Hindostan. When the missionaries examined a translation of the Lord's Prayer in the northern Sindy language, they found that of the thirty-two words of the latter twenty-four agreed with the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens, and of the southern Sindy (which differs in termination from the northern) twenty-four words were found to be radically the same as in the Bengalese and Hindostany examples.

The whole of this territory swarms with mendicants in a state of the utmost apparent misery; but here also, as in other Mussulman countries, a class of sturdy beggars are seen, pretenders to be Seids or descendants of the prophet, and demanding charity in the most peremptory and arrogant manner. These objects of charity frequently go about in parties of seven or eight, soliciting alms on horseback, well dressed armed, and mounted, with a green flag carried

before them, and when their requests are not complied with they bestow abuse on the obdurate with the most liberal profusion.

Sinde was the first conquest in Hindostan effected by the Mahomedans, it having long preceded their invasions by the route of Attock and Lahore. The caliph Ali sent a general who made some conquests on the borders of Sinde. Moavyiya sent twice his general Amir or Hamir, but after long and bloody conquests he was forced to desist. Under the caliph Walid, the conquest was at last completed by Mahomed Cossim, in the year of the Hijera 99; but on account of the distance, sterility, and natural strength of the country, it did not remain long attached to the throne of Bagdad. Subsequent to this epocha, there appears to have existed two contemporaneous authorities in Sinde, the one a Rajpoot family, and the other a Mahomedan; the latter probably converted from the Hindoo faith, both ruling under the title of jam. The Lomra or Rajpoot race are said to have retained possession for the long period of five centuries, after which it was successively governed by different chiefs, one of whom, Mirza Eesau, of the Turkanny tribe, having called in the Portuguese to his assistance against the soubahdar of Mooltan, they plundered Tatta, then the capital city. Shah Beg one of Sultan Baber's antagonists about A.D. 1535, conquered Sinde and founded a dynasty.

Sinde continued with the Turkannies until the reign of Acber, who despatched an army by the way of Sewistan, which succeeded in subduing it, and from that era it became tributary to the Delhi emperors, who managed it through the medium of a soubahdar resident at Mooltan and Tatta. About A.D. 1737, during the alarm excited by the threatened invasion of Hindostan by Nadir Shah, Mahomed Abassi Caloree of Sewee, availed himself of the apprehensions of the soubahdar of Sinde, and influenced him to consign the government to him for the consideration of three lacks of rupees, which he promised, but never paid. In 1739 Nadir Shah defeated the Calorie chiefs, and obliged them to seek refuge in Amercote, on the borders of the desert, but he afterwards permitted them to resume the government as tributaries.

Mahomed Abassi Caloree (or Calhora) died in 1771, and was succeeded by other princes of the same family until 1779, when a tribe of Baloochy origin named the Talpoories, headed by some of the late ameers, and their oldest brother Futteh Ali Khan, rebelled against the Calorie nabob, and expelled him from the country. The surviving representatives of the Calories had recourse to Timour Shah of Cabul, who under pretence of reinstating them, commenced hostilities against the Talpoory ameers, but desisted for an annual tribute of twelve lacks of rupees, which was regularly paid until the death of that sovereign in 1792. On this event it was reduced to seven lacks, and subsequently, during the civil war of his successors, withheld altogether. The ameers of Sinde being thus relieved from all fears on the side of Cabul, commenced encroachments on their neighbours, wrested Corachie from the chief of Baloochistan, and extended their frontiers on the side of Shekarpoor and Ajmeer.

After the decease of Meer Futteh Ali, the then surviving brothers divided the revenue into four shares; two of which were assigned to Gholaum Ali, the eldest, and one to each of his brothers. At the same time the present remarkable constitution of Sinde was framed, by the conditions of which the three ameers ruled jointly, with succession for their sons to the junior rank. In accordance with this system, on the death of Meer Gholaum, who was killed while hunting in 1812, by the charge of a buck, his two brothers each ascended a step, while his son took the lowest seat in the triumvirate, the whole being arranged without the slightest tumult or bloodshed. The revenues of Sinde during the Calorie dynasty

were estimated at eighty lacks of rupees; in 1809 they had fallen to forty-three lacks, but in 1813 had again risen to sixty-one lacks.

In 1819 an envoy from Sinde going to Bombay with his escort, being mistaken for a marauder, was attacked by the British troops, and in the scuffle slain. The mistake was immediately explained, and reparation offered to the Sindean chiefs, who for the time appeared entirely satisfied. Soon afterwards, however, they collected troops among the predatory tribes, invaded Cutch, and set the British government at defiance. An army was in consequence assembled under Sir Charles Colville, but the difference was subsequently amicably arranged. In 1821 the Ameers of Sinde sent a letter of condolence to his Majesty on the death of his father, George the Third, lamenting that event, and congratulating his present majesty on his accession. Advantage was taken by the Bombay presidency of this conciliatory overture, and Capt. Sadleir was despatched to Hyderabad, where a new treaty was concluded, the Ameers undertaking to prevent the future recurrence of the Koza robberies, and paying 11,000 rupees for the past, which was returned to them on their delivering up the principal thieves.

This province, although within the limits of Hindostan, is so detached by the main body of the great sandy desert, that it has never taken any decided part in its politics. In case therefore of a war or alliance with its chiefs, a new scene of action would be entered on, in which the sovereigns of Cabul, Baloochistan, and Persia, and other powers adjacent to the Indus, would be the principal performers. We have now a military station within seventy miles of the Sinde frontier, and 150 of its capital. Thus situated, we can never expect to be entirely free from those petty disturbances incidental to the frontiers of all Asiatic empires, to whatever western limit we may advance our boundaries.

The resemblance of this country to Egypt has been often remarked. A smooth fertile plain, bounded on one side by mountains and on the other by a desert; divided by a large river, which forms a sort of delta, as it approaches the sea, and annually inundates the land in the vicinity of its banks. Even in political circumstances they have an accidental resemblance, being both tyrannized over by foreign and barbarous tribes, yielding a reluctant obedience to a distant and disturbed monarchy. Here, however, the comparison ends, as Sinde is placed in the midst of countries destitute of industry, differing little from each other in their wants and productions, and with no conveniences for external trade, while the geographical situation of Egypt between India and the great European market point it out as an emporium of commerce. But no change for the better can be expected in either, while they continue under the sway of their present ignorant and rapacious rulers.—(*Smith, Maxfield, Pottinger, Elphinstone, Rennell, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SINDE RIVER.—This river has its source in the province of Malwa, from a small range of mountains about twelve miles S.W. from the town of Seronge, and after a course of about 200 miles, including windings, falls into the river Jumna. During the rains it swells greatly, but is too rapid for navigation.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SINDE SAGUR (*Sindhu Sagara*).—This name is applied by Abul Fazel to distinguish the Doab of the Indus and Hydaspes, in the province of Lahore, but it properly refers to the southern portion of that natural division. The little desert of the Indus extends from north to south above 250 miles, but the breadth varies, being in some places not more than thirty, in others above 100 broad. It occupies all that portion of country between the Hydaspes (or Jhylum) and the Indus, which is not overflowed by these rivers, and extends from the lati-

tude of Ooch, where the inundated lands of both join, to the salt range of hills. In fact, three-fourths of this doab, including the district of *Augur*, come under the description of a desert.

Sinde Sagor is partly possessed by the Seiks and partly by the Afghans, the latter portion being distinguished by the name of Leia, under which head further information will be found. Sinde Singh is the term by which the inhabitants of the districts under the Seiks approaching the Indus are known, and Nakai Singh is the name given to the Seiks who reside in the province of Mooltan. With the leaders of the Seiks in these quarters, the extent of their possessions, or the climate and productions of the country under their rule, we are little acquainted; those in Mooltan, as well as those settled along the banks of the Jhylum, are said to be constantly engaged in predatory warfare, either with the officers of the Afghan government, or other Mahomedan chiefs who have jaghires in the neighbourhood.—(*Elphinstone, Malcolm, &c.*)

SINDIA.—See OOJEIN.

SINDOUSE.—A fort and pergunnah in the province of Agra, district of Etaweh, bounded on the north by the river Jumna, and inhabited by a singularly turbulent race of people. The pergunnah of Sindouse is so much intersected with ravines as wholly to preclude the use of cavalry in pursuing offenders, and to render it a difficult and dangerous service even for infantry. Being almost wholly surrounded by the Maharatta territories south of the Chumbul, criminals have a facility of escape not common in other tracts.

SINDWAH.—A fortress and pass in Candeish, ceded by Holcar at the treaty of Mundessor, along with an extent from the glacis of 2,000 yards; lat. 21° 34′ N., lon. 75° 7′ E.; seventy-five miles W. by N. from Boorhanpoor. The Satpoora mountains here become low, and can be ascended by light carriages. It was the road by which the Pindaries were accustomed to return from their plundering expeditions, although they always suffered severely from Gholaum Naik, a noted Bheel chieftain. The Sindwah pass was formerly the principal channel of communication between Malwa, Candeish, and the Deccan, until it was closed up by the Bheel and Pindary banditties, after which it was carried on by the circuitous route of Aseerghur and Boorhanpoor. In 1818 Holcar's government expressed a strong desire to have this route restored, and the old commercial channels resumed.—(*Sutherland, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SINGAPOOR (*Singhapura*)—An island in the straits of Malacca, situated at the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula; lat. 1° 15′ N., lon. 104′ E. This island was taken possession of by Sir Thomas Raffles on the 26th February 1819, under a treaty concluded with the tomogong or native chief, who held his lands from Mahomed Shah the late sultan of Johore. On examination it was found to be much larger than the charts indicated, yet the total population did not exceed 150 persons, of whom thirty were Chinese. It does not appear that the Dutch ever had any settlement, or exercised any authority over this island, yet the remains of religious buildings and other structures indicated that it had once been more thickly inhabited. Indeed the Malay annals narrate that in A.D. 1252 Sri Iscander Shah, the last Malay prince of Singapoor, being hard pressed by the king of Mojopahit in Java, retired to the mainland on the western coast, where he founded the city Malacca. In 1824 a regular cession in full sovereignty of this and the neighbouring islands for ten miles round it, was obtained from the sultan and tomogong.

Singapoor harbour affords safe anchorage at all seasons, and its position is favourable for commanding the navigation of the straits, the di-

rect tract being within five miles distance. The town stands on a point of land near the west end of a bay, between which there is a creek, where native craft, or European vessels of small draught, may anchor close to the town, and on the eastern side there is a deep inlet well adapted to shelter native boats. The rise of the tide is about ten or twelve feet, the variation of the compass 2° 9′ E. West of the creek are low rounded sand-hills, interspersed with spots of level ground. The principal rock is red sandstone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragments and crystals of quartz. This settlement has hitherto proved healthy, yet it combines many circumstances that ought to render it the reverse: an intertropical climate, a constantly high temperature, rapid and constant evaporation, an extensive chain of saline and fresh-water marshes, under the influence of an almost vertical sun, luxuriant and rank vegetation, occasionally checked by drought, and a profusion of vegetable and animal matter in all stages of putrefaction.

Singapoor has hitherto, and must for some years continue to be a mere port of depôt, having as yet no native productions to export; but the increase of its population and transit commerce, within the short space of five years, is quite unexampled in history. Its condition in 1819, when first taken possession of, is described above; the following was its condition in 1824. The total tonnage cleared out that year amounted to 1,552 vessels, of which 249 were square-rigged, 1,303 native craft. The European departures for China were fifty-one, the native junks eight, the Siamese junks forty-four, those of Cochin China and Cambodia twenty-six. The value of exports in 1824 amounted to 6,604,601 Spanish dollars; of the imports 6,914,536 dollars. The importation of European piece goods in 1824 was 3,131 cases, that of Indian piece goods having declined; woollens 485 bales, opium 1,893 chests.

Population of Singapoor on the 30th December 1824.

Europeans..............	84
Native Christians......	132
Armenians..............	9
Arabians................	10
Natives of the Deccan	690
Do. ......Hindostan	226
Malays..................	5,130
Buggesses..............	1,704
Javanese................	38
Chinese	3,828
Total......	11,851

Consisting of 8,620 males, and only 3,231 females. Indeed there were only 267 Chinese women to 3,561 men, and the purchase of females from the neighbouring islands to supply the deficiency was prohibited. To the above must be added the garrison and their followers, amounting to 368 individuals, and a floating population of about 2,500, making a total population of 14,719, distributed as follows:

The central portion of the settlement, where the Europeans dwell, contained only 668 inhabitants; the south-west quarter 4,226, of whom above one-half where Chinese. The native town contained a population of 3,053, of whom two-thirds were natives of the archipelago. The establishment formed in 1822 at the new harbour, and the cluster of islets to the westward, contained 1,609 inhabitants, nearly all Malays. A population of about 2,200 was scattered over the interior of the island in plantations and gardens, to the depth of above three miles from the sea-coast. The whole number of dwellings was 911, and the price of land in convenient spots had risen enormously. In January 1826 a Chinese junk arrived, with 870 emigrants, and in February another with 1,050, the passage money from China being only six dollars. They are the most valuable of all the classes, as it has been found from experience that the labour, industry, and capacity of a Chinese, are at least equal to those of any two other Asiatic natives. The total number of

Chinese emigrants that arrived at Singapoor in 1825 and 1826 amounted to 5,513 persons. About 3,000 of these distributed themselves in Rhio and the neighbouring isles, the remainder settled in the British territories.

The agar-agar of the Malays (the *fucus saccharinus*) abounds on the coral shoals in the vicinity of Singapoor, and forms a bulky article of native export for the Chinese market, where it fetches, including the freight, from six to eight dollars per pecul. When dry and ready packed for exportation, it may be purchased here for three or four dollars per pecul. By the Chinese it is converted into glue, paint, &c.: besides which it is used for glazing their cotton manufactures and sacrifice paper. A small portion of the finest sort is made into a fine jelly, which on being cut up and preserved in syrup, makes a delicious sweetmeat. The reefs and shoals exposed by low tides afford luxuriant crops of this weed, which in its native state resembles a species of fern, but the finest sort is procured on the coast of Billiton isle, and brings more than double the price of any other. The common harvest amounts to about 6,000 peculs, which in favourable seasons may be doubled. —(*Singapoor Chronicle, Raffles, Capt. Ross, Finlayson, &c.*)

SINGARAPETTAH.—A town in the Barramahal district, situated about 110 miles travelling distance from Pondicherry. Near to this place there is a fine embanked reservoir.

SINGARUMCOTTA (*Singha rama cata*).—A town in the northern Circars, twenty-four miles N. by W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 18° 3′ N., lon. 83° 20′ E.

SINGBOOM (*singha bumi*). — A territory in the province of Orissa, governed by a raja independent within his own limits, but under political subordination to the British government. It is bounded on three sides by the districts of Chuta Nagpoor, Midnapoor, and Mohurbunge, and on the south by that of Kunjeur. Between Singboom there is a saul forest extending into Sumbhulpoor, which has been estimated to exceed thirty miles in length, the trees of which are said to be of remarkable loftiness and dimensions. The zemindars in this and other tracts on the Midnapoor frontier were formerly many of them robbers by birth, kept robbers in their pay, and have still a hankering after their old trade. While tributary to the Maharattas they were under no internal control, and were at home magistrates, with unlimited powers of life and death. In 1821 the population of Singboom was estimated at 66,227 persons.

A tribe named Lurkhas inhabited a portion of this division, situated in a valley between two ranges of hills watered by the rivers Roro and Kurkye, and named after them Lurkhacole. In 1820 they were in a manner for the first time discovered by accident, in consequence of Major Roughsedge's detachment marching through the country, on which occasion they committed depredations, and killed several of the camp followers. A force large enough to prove that resistance was hopeless was detached against them; yet they did resist, and fought most desperately with bows, arrows, battle-axes, and stones, until the loss of many of their warriors, and all their villages and granaries, compelled them to submit to the terms proposed for their future regulation. It is to be regretted such extremities were necessary, as from the flourishing condition of their small community they are likely, under a moderate government, to prove valuable subjects.

These Lurkhas or Lurkhacoles are probably a branch of the great Gond family, and appear to be widely scattered, as they are also found in the hills immediately west of Chunar about the Kemoor ghaut. They burn their dead and bury their ashes. Their religion is not yet ascertained, but they do not appear to have any of the Hindoo scruples with respect to food, neither have the dogmas of the Arabian prophet penetrated among

them. Their traffic consists in the barter of pulse, mustard-seed, sesamum, and ghee, for salt and coarse cloths, with the inhabitants of the neighbouring pergunnahs. In 1823 Raja Goonshaum Singh acknowledged subjection to the British government, and requested assistance against the depredations of the Coles.—(*Capt. Jackson, Public Journals, &c.*)

SINGBOOM (*singha bhumi, the land of lions*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, the ancient capital of the preceding division; lat. 22° 31′ N., lon. 85° 40′ E., 105 miles W. from Midnapoor. Notwithstanding the etymology given above of the name of this town and territory, it is notorious that there never was a lion seen within the limits of either.

SINGHEA.—A town in the province of Bahar, situated on the east side of the Gundhick, seventeen miles N. from the city of Patna; lat. 25° 52′ N., lon. 85° 15′ E. Near to this place is the site of an ancient city, where a remarkable pillar stands; and two days journey further up the Gunduck, near a place called Kesserah, is a remarkable edifice, which appears to have been originally a cylinder placed on the frustrum of a cone, for the purpose of being seen at a distance. Both the cone and cylinder are of brick, and appear solid throughout.—(*Reuben Burrows, &c.*)

SINGHERICONDA. — A village of about fifty Brahmins' huts in the Northern Carnatic, ten miles south from Ongole; lat. 15° 5′ N., lon. 79° 59′ E. This place stands at the base of a hill, having a pagoda on the summit, dedicated to Narasingha, and apparently of some antiquity. The river Maner flows to the south with a broad but shallow stream.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SINGHUR.—A strong hill in the province of Aurungabad, about twelve miles south of Poona, and in the vicinity of Poorunder. The fort of Singhur stands on the summit of a mountain, which terminates to the west one of the ranges of hills between Poona and the Neera river. Its altitude is very great, and the access to it along pathways on high precipitous ridges which ascend from the south and eastward. Its greatest extent from east to west is 1,000 yards, and from north to south about 800 yards. Its shape being very irregular, the area of the interior is confined, and mostly occupied by rugged eminences. This is one of the cautionary fortresses surrendered by the Peshwa in 1817, as a pledge for his sincerity, and subsequently restored to him. It was captured in 1818 by a detachment under General Pritzler.

SINGOLE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles N.N.W. from Gurrah; lat. 23° 29′ N., lon. 79° 51′ E.

SINGROWLA.—A small division in the province of Gundwana, bounded on the east by the British district of Ramghur and zemindary of Palamow. The Singrowla raja's territories commence on the north-west at a narrow defile in the Bickery hills called Bulghaut. In this tract between the hills there are extensive valleys, but wild and uncultivated, and frequently covered with forests. A few small villages are scattered over the face of the country, in the vicinity of which some cultivation is seen; but the territory in general is very desolate. Iron is found in abundance, the price being from one rupee and a half to two rupees and a half per eighty pounds, according to quality. In this miserable region several Hindoo mythological excavations and images have been discovered, but of a very inferior description to those seen in the Deccan. Singrowla is still possessed by various petty and independent native chiefs, the principal of whom is the raja of Shawpoor. The principal quarry of corundum perhaps in India, is within the territory of the Singrowla raja, about eight miles south from Sahapoor, where that chief usually resides, and about 120 miles from Mirzapoor, on the banks of the

Ganges. The quantity brought from thence to Mirzapoor is considerable, and it is from hence that the rest of the more eastern provinces are supplied. The vicinity of the quarry is inhabited by the rude tribe named Kol, to whom the traders carry a little salt, cloth, and various other trifles, and in return get iron and corundum.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

SINGPOOR.—A town belonging to the British government in the province of Malwa, situated in the Bareerewah river, seven miles from Condilly.

SINKAWAN.—A port in Borneo, situated about thirty miles to the south of Sambas, and three miles up a small river leading to that part of the interior where the Chinese employed in the gold mines about Montradak are so numerous that they have been estimated at 60,000 persons. It is the chief mart for procuring gold, and the best market for opium and piece goods, surpassing both Sambas and Pontiana. In A.D. 1820 disputes arose between the Chinese miners (governed by their own captain) and the Dutch, who in 1823 proclaimed this port in a state of blockade.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

SINNORE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the steep banks of the Nerbudda, but with an excellent flight of steps down to the water; lat. 21° 56′ N., lon. 73° 35′ E., twenty-six miles E.N.E. from Broach.

SINPOOR.—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the province of Gundwana, division of Choteesghur, situated on the right bank of the Mahanuddy, twenty miles north of Aring. This is said to have been the capital of the ancient dynasty of Byram Deo, and the ruins of numerous temples and other buildings scattered over this part of the country indicate a former state of prosperity, and a more numerous population than is at present to be found. —(*Jenkins, &c.*)

SION.—A small town and fort on the island of Bombay, about eight miles from the presidency, at the opposite extremity of the island. It stands on the top of a small conical hill, where it commands the passage from Bombay to Salsette, and was of importance when the Maharattas possessed that island. At the foot of the little hill of Sion is the causeway or vellard built by Mr. Duncan across a small arm of the sea which separated the two islands. It is well constructed of stone, and has a drawbridge in the centre. This causeway was begun in 1797, and finished in 1805, at an expense of 50,575 rupees.—(*M. Graham, &c.*)

SIPHABAD.—A town in the province of Delhi, five miles N.W. from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 21′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

SIPRA RIVER.—A river in the province of Malwa, which has its source three miles west of the small town of Tillore, and after a winding northerly course passes to the west of Oojein, and ultimately joins the Chumbul, twelve miles west of Gungrar. During the rains it swells to a great height, and frequently devastates the adjacent villages; but, on account of its rapidity, is not navigable at any season of the year. It forms the line of demarcation between Dewass and the possessions of Holcar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SIRDANG.—A small river on the east coast of Sumatra, on the banks of which in 1822 were many villages, containing altogether a population of about 3,000 Malays and 8,000 Battas. The authority of the sultan Besar extended from Sunjei Tuan to Manchong along the coast, which is said to have been originally peopled by emigrants from Menancabow. The articles of trade here are nearly the same as at Delli and Buluchina, pepper being the principal export; opium and cotton goods the most considerable imports. Quail-fighting is a favourite amusement about Sirdang; a good fighting quail will in

consequence fetch at least eight dollars. Inland are various tribes of Battas, some addicted to canabalism, others not.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

SIRDHAR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated near its centre; lat. 22° 3′ N., lon. 71° 5′ E. This was formerly a place of consequence, and controlled 700 villages; but the possessions of the family have gradually diminished, and Raujcote has become the seat of government.

SIRGOOJAH.—A large district in the province of Gundwana, situated about the twenty-third degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Palamow and Singboom; on the east by Jushpoor; on the south by Odeypoor, and on the west by Choteesghur. A considerable portion of this space is surrounded by a range of mountains from 1,000 to 1,200 feet high, the access to which is through difficult passes that might be easily defended. That Sirgoojah is elevated above the adjacent countries is proved by the rivers flowing from it in opposite directions, some north to the Sone, others south to the Mahanuddy. The soil is singularly rich, and so well supplied with moisture that even the tops of the hills are marshy. Mohree is the most valuable portion of Sirgoojah. It also commands the Pushtoo pass, the only one into Bahar from this quarter, and which might be made passable at a small expense. The principal rivers are the Hudsoo and the Rhern.

The soil of Sirgoojah resembles that of Ramghur. In some parts it is sandy, and contains a smaller proportion of clay and gravel. Its produce differs little from that of Ramghur, to which it adjoins, except that in the valleys it yields vast quantities of tickoor or curcuma augustifolia, from the roots of which the natives prepare a farinaceous powder, scarcely to be distinguished from the arrow-root of the West Indies. In this district there is a remarkably hot-spring, the temperature of which is 186° Fahrenheit.

In 1802 this district was supposed to contain twenty-one dhundoors, or territorial subdivisions, averaging 400 villages each; but three-fourths of the country were described as mountainous, jungly, and nearly in a state of nature. The obedience paid to the Nagpoor raja was very slight, and the tribute, only 3,000 rupees per annum, very irregularly paid for so vast an extent of country. It does not appear that the Sirgoojah country then contained any towns of note, or even fortified posts. In 1802 the British government was obliged to march a detachment into Sirgoojah, to repress the repeated inroads from that country; but all further interference appears to have been suspended until 1813, when Bulbudder Sahy, the legitimate raja, who had then attained years of discretion, applied for assistance to quell the rebellion of his uncle Singhram Singh, which was refused. The disaffected jaghiredars gaining consequence from this apparent inability, surrounded the palace and put to death the spiritual director of the raja, who with his mother, would probably have shared the same fate, but for the interposition of Major Roughsedge, who sent a party of sepoys to protect them. Raja Bulbudder Sahy and his son, the heir apparent, died of the small-pox in 1818, by which catastrophe the direct line of the Sirgoojah family became extinct. In the same year the sovereignty of Sirgoojah was ceded to the British government by the Nagpoor state, and arrangements are still in progress for its settlement.

The construction of practicable roads is one of the greatest benefits that the British government can confer on the Sirgoojans, and these were immediately commenced after the country had been surveyed in 1819. The distance from Midnapoor was found to be 279 miles, from Nagpoor 369, total 648; being much less to the latter place than by the circuitous routes of Benares, Allahabad, and Bundelcund. At present Sirnadu is one of the largest and most populous villages. In 1823 the

tribute of 3,000 rupees due to the British government was remitted, on account of the impoverished condition of the country, and the same year Lal Ameer Singh was raised to the throne, in consequence of the secession of Ranny Bishen Cooar. —(*Public MS. Documents, R. B. Ferguson, Becton, &c.*)

SIRGOOJAH.—This town, the original capital of the preceding district, formerly stood in lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 83° 30′ E; but in 1822 scarcely a vestige remained of its prior existence. Three stages to the south-east is the mountain and table-land of Mynpat, which has an elevation of between 2,000 and 3,000 feet, and consequently a moderate temperature compared with the plains below.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

SIRHIND.—A town in the province of Delhi, formerly the capital of a territorial subdivision, of which a large proportion is now comprehended in the district of Saharunpoor, and the rest possessed by the Seiks. About A D. 1357 Sultan Feroze the third of Delhi cut several canals from the Jumna and Sutuleje, in order to fertilize this naturally arid country, and afterwards built a fort at Sirhind, but both the fort and canals have long disappeared. The city of Sirhind itself has long been a scene of desolation, it never having recovered from the dreadful ravages of the Seik Bairaggie, Banda, about A.D. 1707, who is stated to have then not only destroyed the mosques, but to have levelled its palaces and public buildings with the ground. At present Pattiallah is the largest and most flourishing town, and next to it Thanusar, which is still held in high religious veneration by the Hindoos, as is also the feeble and temporary current of the Sereswati. In March 1809 Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore gave up the forts he occupied on the left bank of the Sutuleje, but he still exacts certain feudal duties from such Seik chiefs as also hold lands on the north-western side of that river.

By Abul Fazel, Sirhind is described as a famous city, containing the delightful gardens of Hafez Rehneh, but it now presents only a shapeless mass of extensive ruins. In the neighbourhood are numerous mangoe groves, and also some excellent tanks of water. Between this town and Kurnal are extensive plains, containing the towns of Paniput and Kurnal, and renowned for having been the theatre of many battles, both in ancient and modern times. Whether Delhi, Agra, or Kanoje were the temporary capital, Sirhind was the route from Persia and Tartary by which the conquerors of Hindostan advanced. In 1809 it belonged to a Seik chieftian named Bingh Singh.—(*11th Register, Rennell, &c.*)

SIRMORE.—A principality in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna rivers. On the north it is separated from Bussaher by the river Pabur; on the west it is bounded by Hindoor and the Barrah Tuckrah; on the south by the Seik possessions in the Delhi province; and on the east by Gurwal and the river Jumna. It is subdivided into pergunnahs, and each pergunnah into pattis or estates. With the exception of the Kardeh Doon this tract is covered with mountains, extending in ranges radiating from the Chur, much indented and crowned with peaks. The Chur peak is 10,588 feet in height, and although sixty miles from the nearest summit of the snowy chain, is higher than any intervening point. The snow lies on the Chur peak until June, and it is said little or no rain ever falls there.

This principality has for many years been governed by a race of Rajpoot princes, said to have come originally from Jesselmere, who long exercised a paramount authority over many others. In 1775 Raja Kineh Singh died, leaving four sons, of whom Kurrum Perkaush, the third, succeeded regularly on the death of his two elder brothers; but in consequence of his misconduct, and other events incident to native communities, he was repeatedly de-

throned and restored. When the British entered the country in 1814, against the Gorkhas, they found most of the hill chiefs had been either banished or degraded, and many were in a state of the most extreme indigence. After the expulsion of the Gorkhas, it was determined to exclude Kurrum Perkaush on account of the infamy of his conduct, and place his young son, Futteh Singh, under the guardianship of his mother, on the throne, which was done accordingly. The country left in his possession, together with the duties collected at the great fair of Tirakpoor, were expected to yield 40,000 rupees per annum, clear of all expenses, and these resources were known to be capable of improvement. In settling the limits the Tamas or Tonse river was selected as a marked boundary, beyond which the British government could claim nothing to the westward, nor that of Sirmore to the east.

Among other strange practices it is a usual custom in Sirmore to lay children (especially infants), while asleep during the heats, with their heads under little rills of the coldest water, without any bad effect; indeed by the natives it is a process highly estimated. When Captain Ross received charge of the Sirmore treasury in 1818, it owed 11,000 rupees at eighteen per cent. interest; but when delivered over to the young Raja Futteh Perkaush in 1823, it had 30,000 rupees to its credit, a sum which though small, must be considered of importance with reference to the total amount of the Sirmore revenue, and still more so as furnishing the first instance upon record of a Sirmore raja free from debt and financial embarrassment.—(*Sir David Ochterlony, Publ. MS. Documents, Capt. Rodney Blane, Capt. Birch, Govan, &c.*)

SIRNADU.—A large and populous village in the province of Gundwana, division of Sirgoojah, situated at the bottom of a ghaut or pass. This is the residence of the principal jaghiredar, who holds part of his estate on the tenure of keeping the pass in a defensible state.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SIRRENAGUR (*Sri nagara*). — A town in the province of Gundwana, district of Gurrah, 130 miles N. by E. from Nagpoor; lat. 22° 57′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E. In 1818 a party of the Nagpoor raja's troops were defeated here.

SIRSAH.—A town in the Bhatty country, in the province of Ajmeer, situated about thirty miles to the westward of Futtehabad, within which distance there are not above ten villages. From Sirsah it is sixteen miles to Raneah, with two villages, Jemar and Raypoor, on the road. Forty-five miles to the westward of Raneah lies Bhatneer. At Sirsah there is a ghurry or mud fort, much out of repair, which, however, in 1803, withstood an attack of the Maharatta infantry, assisted by one of the Begum Somroo's corps.—(*Archibald Seton, &c.*)

SIRSAWA.—A town in the province of Delhi, seven miles N.W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 1′ N., lon. 77° 24′ E.

SITLAHA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, division of Rewah, situated on the bank of the river Tonse below the ghauts, about fifty-seven miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. Here is the common ferry, where travellers proceeding to Rewah cross the Tonse; and on the margin of the river opposite to Sitlaha there is a small castle, rudely built of stone.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SITTIVACCA.—The name of a small town in Ceylon, formerly noted for being the chief scene of intercourse, friendly or hostile, between the Candians and their European neighbours, lat. 6° 57′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E., twenty-three miles E. from Columbo. There is here a ferry over a considerable river of the same name with the town. Sittivacca was once a royal residence, and among the jungles the ruins of an old fort and some other buildings

may still be traced; but the common clay-built houses of the original town have so wholly disappeared, that it has almost ceased to exist.—(*Davy, &c.*)

SIVANA SAMUDRA. — An island formed by the Cavery in North Coimbatoor, about nine miles in length by one in breadth, and remarkable as the site of the ancient Hindoo city of Ganga Para, and for the vicinity of two cataracts of the Cavery, of extraordinary grandeur.

Here are the ruins of a bridge, once 300 yards in length, across the southern branch of the Cavery, constructed on the principle of the bridges described under the head of Seringapatam, with nearly 100 pillars in each range. Directly opposite are the nearly obliterated remains of the southern gate of a wall that surrounded the city, to which there was a flight of steps. The place is enveloped in the thickest forests, and the interior is now a jungle of long grass, with many banyan trees of great size. The principal street may still be traced, extending from north to south about one mile. There are here the ruins of many Hindoo temples, great and small, and much sculpture of various sorts. In one apartment there is a statue of Vishnu, seven feet long, in the best style of Indian carving. The figure is thick, with a pyramidical cap, the eyes closed, and seven cobra capella snakes forming a canopy over his head. The apartments are small and dark, and must be examined with torches, the principal statue being in the remotest chamber.

The cataract of Gangana Chuki is on the northern branch of the Cavery, and may be conveniently viewed from the vicinity of a little hermitage about a mile from the north-eastern gate of the city. This branch of the river is subdivided into two lesser ramifications, a short distance above the fall. The nearest, and by much the largest of these streams is broken by projecting masses of rock into one cataract of prodigious volume, and three or four smaller torrents. The first plunges into the ravine below, from a height variously estimated at from 100 to 150 feet, while the others, impeded in their course by the intervening rocks, work their way, with many fantastic evolutions, to a distance of about 200 feet from the base of the precipice, where the whole unite, the other detached portion of the river precipitating itself at the same time in two columns from a cliff about 200 feet high, nearly at right angles with the principal fall. The surrounding scenery is wild, and the whole presents a very imposing spectacle, especially during the height of the rains.

The second cataract is formed by the southern arm of the Cavery, at a spot called Birra Chaki, about a mile from the fall above described. The channel of the river here is spread out to a magnificent expanse, and its stream divided into no less than ten distinct torrents, which fall with infinite variety of configuration over a broken precipice of more than 100 feet, presenting no single body of water equal in volume to the main fall at Gangani Chuki; but the whole forming an amphitheatre of cataracts, meeting the eye in every direction, along a sweep of probably ninety degrees, and combined with scenery of such sequestered wildness, that for picturesque effect it is perhaps without parallel in the world.

In 1820 the island of Samudra was granted by the Madras presidency for thirty years to a native speculator, who engaged to clear the island, replace the bridge, and repair the temples. The revenue previously yielded did not amount to more than twenty-eight pagodas per annum. In 1820 a new bridge was completed, 1,000 feet long, thirteen broad, and twenty-three high, planned by Ramaswamy Moodely, and completed at his sole risk and expense.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SOAB.—A considerable village in the province of Agra belonging to the raja of Jeypoor, situated on a

small eminence, about seventy miles travelling distance S.W. by W. from the city of Jeypoor.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Soanghur.—A town in the province of Candeish, 110 miles E. by S. from Surat; lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

Sodera.—A town in the province of Lahore, fifty-nine miles N. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 26′ N., lon. 73° 59′ E.

Sohagepoor.—A subdivision of the Gundwana province, intersected by the Sone river, and reaching nearly to the source of that stream, at the temple of Omerkuntuc. In ancient times this territory composed part of the Hindoo state of Gurrah; but during the reign of Aurengzebe it was formally annexed to the soubah of Allahabad, although only subjected in name to the Mogul empire. It has, however, occasionally paid tribute to its more powerful neighbours, and latterly was considered as a regular appendage to the dominions of Nagpoor, until ceded to the British in 1818. The town of Sohagepoor stands in lat. 23° 28′ N., lon. 81° 40′ E., sixty-five miles N.N.E. from Mundlah.

Sohait.—A town in the province of Malwa, the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia, but rented by Zalim Singh. In 1820 the town contained about 6,000 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sohaul.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles S.S.E. from Callinjer; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 80° 49′ E.

Sohna.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-eight miles S. by W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 21′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E.

Solak.—A Tartar village in Tibet, district of Spiti, and situated on the banks of the Spiti; lat. 32° 5′ N.

Solapoor (*Salapura*).—A district in the province of Aurungabad, situated at the south-eastern extremity, between the seventeenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude. This territory is fertile and well irrigated, but as yet little known. It is traversed from north to south by the Seena river, and bounded on the west by the Beema. The principal towns are Solapoor and Inhole.

Solapoor.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, the capital of the preceding district, sixty-five miles N. by E. from the ancient city of Bejapoor; lat. 17° 40′ N., lon. 76° 3′ E. The fort of Solapoor is an oblong of considerable area, with a wall and fausse bray of substantial masonry, flanked by capacious round towers. A broad and deep wet ditch surrounds the place, and the north and east sides are covered by an extensive pettah surrounded by a good wall. To the southward communicating with the ditch is a tank, surrounded on three sides by a mound, which in its extent forms a respectable breast-work to the garrison. This place was taken in 1818, after an obstinate defence, by a detachment under Sir Thomas Munro, and since the annexation of the southern Maharatta country has become an important military station.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

Soledra.—A town in the province of Gujerat, six miles west of Duryawud; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 74° 26′ E., 750 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Soliman Mountains.—A range of high mountains in Afghanistan, running nearly north and south, situated to the west of the Indus, between the twenty-ninth and thirty-fourth degrees of north latitude. The ridge commences at the lofty peak named the Suffaid Coh, or white mountain, from the perpetual snow that crowns its summit. By the Afghans it is named Speenghur, which has the same import in the Pushtoo language that Suffaid Coh has in Persian. The tukhté Soliman, or throne of Solomon, was estimated in 1809, by Lieut. Macartney, at 12,831 feet.

Solo (*or Sura carta*).—A large

town in the island of Java, the capital of the susuhunan or emperor; lat. 7° 35′ S., lon. 110° 55′ E., sixty-one miles S.S.E. from Samarang. This is a large and populous place, intersected by broad shaded avenues or streets, extending at right angles. The crattan, where the emperor resides, is very spacious, and comprises many buildings within its area. The chiefs and nobility dwell in villas in the neighbourhood, surrounded by high walls. The European fort and town are very neat, and in 1815, although within 800 yards of the crattan, contained a large British garrison. Suracarta, however, may rather be termed an assemblage of numerous villages, than what in Europe would be called a town. A fine river, navigable during the rains, flows past, and afterwards falls into the harbour of Gressie. In A.D. 1742 Cartasura was abandoned, and the seat of government removed to this town. In 1815 its population was estimated at 105,000 persons.

The era of Javanese history, of which the chronology is tolerably well ascertained, goes as far back as 600 years. The present susuhunan, who passes for the lineal descendant of the first monarch, is the fifty-eighth human birth that has sat on the throne. Prior to the reign of this dynasty was that of their devatas or demi-gods, among whom are reckoned the patriarch Adam and his son Seth; in the same list with whom the Hindoo triad Brahma, Vishnu, and Mahadeva are found. Following these are certain persons whom we may conjecture to have been deities worshipped by the Javanese, before the introduction of either the Hindoo or Mahomedan religions. Prior to the introduction of the latter this people were brave and enterprizing, and about A.D. 1400, besides possessing a great portion of Java, their power was predominant in the Eastern isles, their conquests extending to Sumatra, Borneo, and even to the Moluccas. They became known to Europeans only in the decline of their power, and suffered greatly by the never-ceasing encroachments of the Dutch.

The native provinces in Java are divided between the susuhunan and sultan, agreeably to the settlement of 1754; but their territories are so intermingled that it is impossible to discriminate them geographically. In 1815, according to a census taken by the British government, the native province of Solo or Suracarta contained 972,727 inhabitants, of which number 2,435 were Chinese. A considerable part of the Mataram province and adjacent districts towards the south having been ceded by the predecessors of the present susuhunan in 1752 to prince Mangku Nagara, are still exclusively enjoyed by his successor Prangavedono. The government of the susuhunan is a pure, unmixed despotism, there being no hereditary rank, for not only honours and posts originate from his authority, but also the possession of landed property and its cultivators, which are bestowed and resumed at pleasure. The highest executive officer or prime minister is the raden adepati, who usually rules the kingdom, while his nominal master is satisfied with the flattery, pomp, and luxury of his seraglio.

The susuhunan was implicated in the conspiracy that took place in 1815 among the British sepoys in Java. The intimacy appears to have commenced from his attending the ceremonies of their religious worship, which were Hindoo, and also presenting them with several idols of their deities which had been preserved in his family. The conspirators flattered him (a Mahomedan) as the descendant of the great Rama, and a deliberate plot was arranged, the object of which was to place the European provinces once more under a Hindoo sovereignty, in which case the Javanese, whose faith hangs very loosely on them, would probably have relapsed en masse to their old Brahminical superstition.

The susuhunan of Suracarta or Solo died in 1820, in the thirty-third year of his reign leaving fifty-six

children, and 146 grandchildren. His successor, Abdul Rehmen, died in 1823.—(*Raffles, Thorn, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Solor Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from Floris or Endé by the straits of Floris, and from Sabrao by a narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by fifteen the average breadth. Provisions are usually plenty here, and iron manufactures in demand.

The inhabitants of Solor consist of two classes, the mountaineers or aborigines, and the maritime inhabitants, who appear to be of the Bajoo or orang laut (men of the sea) tribe, who in 1820 acknowledged subordination to the Dutch factory at Coopang. Little intercourse, except the exchange of a few commodities, subsists between the two races. The articles in demand are the same as at Timor. The chief exports by the Macassar and Sumbhawa prows are wax and fish-oil, which last they procure from a species of black whale about twenty feet long. The inhabitants are principally Mahomedans, but many natives of the north coast have been converted to Christianity by the Portuguese, who still retain some small influence in that quarter of the island. A Dutch interpreter from Coopang is stationed here, to whom the native chiefs of the vicinity in common times yield implicit obedience. In A.D. 1613 the Dutch captured the Portuguese settlements on Solor and Tidore.—(*Malay Miscellanies, Flinders, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Somawarpett.—A village and talook in the province of Mysore and principality of Coorg, separated from Sauthazar talook only by a little rivulet, yet differing in dress, manners and customs. In the last-mentioned the villagers are covered with a blanket, which passes over the left shoulder, leaving the right one entirely naked, and being wrapped round the lower part of the body as low down as the knee, it is tied round the loins by a kind of sash or belt. In the Somawarpett talook the natives wear a white vest covering the whole body down to the knee, and buckled round by a belt. They differ even in their mode of beating the tomtom (drum), and of sounding the colory horn.—(*Colonel Lambton, &c.*)

Sommee.—A town in the province of Gujerat, the modern capital of the Rahdunpoor principality; lat. 23° 32′ N., lon. 71° 43′ E. This is a place of considerable size, and in 1820 was supposed to contain 4,000 houses. It stands in a swamp, is surrounded by many puddles, and during the rainy season is almost under water. To the north-west is a plain destitute of wood, but partly cultivated, and abounding with antelopes.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Somnauth.—See Puttun Somnauth.

Sonail.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 4,000 inhabitants. At the above date it exhibited the rare phenomenon of a flourishing town in the province of Malwa; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 76° 2′ E.

Sonakar.—A pergunnah in Choteesghur, the zemindar of which, Ram Ray, having become formidable by the supineness of prior governments, continued refractory in 1818, after the rest of the province was tranquillized. He was subsequently reduced to subjection by a military detachment.—(*Major Agnew, &c.*)

Sonara.—A large village in the province of Malwa, belonging to Holcar, near the Kotah frontier, about fifty miles south from the city of Kotah; lat. 24° 35′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

Sonda.—A town in the province of Mooltan, situated on the road from Tatta to Hyderabad, a short distance from the banks of the Indus; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon 68° 27′ E. The banks of the river here are low and swampy, and the depth of water about four fathoms. One mile

N.N.E. from Sonda the Cooperah hills approach the western bank of the Indus, which winds with a serpentine course, and washes their bases for about two miles in extent.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

SONDWARA.—A wild tract in the province of Malwa, which stretches from Auggur to the Chumbul east, and from Gungraur to Oojein north and south. It received its name from a desperate race of plunderers called Sondies, who are sometimes described as Rajpoots, but are in fact the descendants of a mixture of all classes, which the name implies. They first appeared as robbers, gradually rose to be petty zemindars, and during the thirty years' anarchy of Malwa rose to be successful freebooters on a considerable scale. At the peace of Mundessor the Sondie forces were estimated at 1,249 horse and 9,250 foot, all subsisting by plunder, for the possessions they claimed as their own were all in a complete state of desolation. Even after the conquest of Malwa the natural difficulties of the country encouraged the Sondies to persevere in their predatory habits, to repress which a considerable force directed by Sir John Malcolm penetrated the country, and in six weeks captured thirteen strongholds, and expelled the robbers, who finding no refuge in their ancient fastnesses, had no alternative but to deliver up their arms, and make the best settlement they could as cultivators. Since that period the Sondies have been strictly superintended to prevent a revival of their former habits, but at the same time treated with such kindly policy, that Sondwara is fast attaining a state of order and prosperity. At their marriages and feasts the Sondies are aided by Brahmins, but this caste have otherwise but little intercourse with them, and their moral character still continues of the worst description.—(*Malcolm, Prinsep, &c.*)

SONE RIVER (*sona, golden*).—The rivers Sone and Nerbudda have their sources in the table-land of Omerkuntuc, in the province of Gundwana. The Sone rises on the east side and flows through Pindarah, where being joined by other streams from the north-east side of this mountainous region, it proceeds in a northerly direction through Sohagepoor and Bogalecund, when turning more to the eastward, it pursues its course towards the Ganges. According to Major Rennell's Bengal atlas, their junction formerly took place at Maner, but a tongue of land projecting east has been formed from the Shahabad district, so that Maner is now three miles above the confluence of the two rivers.

The appearance of the Sone during the heats of spring is still more desert than that of the Ganges, and its eastern bank is in many places overwhelmed with barren sandy downs, blown up from its channel. In some part the channel consists of clay and is cultivated. It is no where rocky in this part, but with the sand blown up are intermixed a variety of small pebbles, some of which are very ornamental, and the floods have strength enough to carry some of these almost to a junction with the sacred river. During its course in these districts the Sone receives no branch, but sends off some old channels, that in different parts are called by its name. These, however, are of no use either for irrigation or navigation. For the purposes of the first, the great Sone is too deeply sunk in its channel, and during the rainy season could not be controlled by dams, nor is it of much use for boats. In the Sone the fish are of a much superior quality to those of the Ganges, especially several kinds of carp.

The channel of this river in the province of Bahar is celebrated for its pebbles, many of which are very ornamental and take a high polish, but the major portion consists of water-worn fragments of rude siliceous rocks of various kinds, chiefly quartz, both diaphonous and opaque, and of various colours. All the pebbles have probably been brought from the southern hills by the stream of

this powerful torrent; but by some it is alleged that the waters of the Sone have a petrifying quality.

This immense torrent forms the boundary between the districts of Bahar and Shahabad, for about fifty-five miles of a direct line, from its mouth upwards, and is in general almost equal in size to the bed of the Ganges. After heavy rains this channel is almost filled, but does not overflow, and has a rapidity that scarcely admits of navigating against the current; but during the rainy season, boats of 500 or 600 maunds pass the whole extent, above two districts, and small craft of twenty maunds can pass the whole year. Near its origin this river is said to be designated the Sonabudda, to distinguish it from the Nerbudda, by which, conjointly with the Ganges, the triangular portion of Hindostan is insulated. —(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Blunt, &c.*)

Son[illegible].—A town in the province of Malwa, nineteen miles east of Dewass, situated on the east side of the Cali Sinde river, lat. 23° 1′ N., lon. 76° 23′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sonepoor.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the west side of the Mahanuddy river, but a great proportion of the lands attached to it lie to the east of that river, in the province of Orissa; lat. 20° 22′ N., lon. 83° 42′ E.; fifty-four miles south of Sumbhulpoor. In 1818 Sonepoor was assessed in money to the amount of 20,000 Sumbhulpoor rupees. At this place the Gond and Ooria languages are intermingled.—(*Roughsedge, Stirling, &c.*)

Soneput (*Sonapati*).—A town in the province of Delhi, which with the lands attached form part of the territory the revenue of which is assigned by the British government for the support of the emperor and royal family of Delhi. To the north of this city is a mausoleum erected by Khizzer Khan, a Patan nobleman, descended from the family of Shere Shah.

Songola.—A village in Siam, situated on the eastern bank of a river of the same name, which flows into the Meklong river, which joins the Menam near to Bankok, the capital of Siam. This village is only two hours and half marching distance from Praw Thoungy or the three pagodas, which mark the limits of the British and Siamese territories.

Songora.—A seaport belonging to the Siamese, situated on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, and west side of the gulf of Siam; lat. 7° 40′ N., lon. 101° 10′ E.

Sonye.—A town belonging to Sindia, in the province of Aurungabad, district of Ahmednuggur, twenty-five miles travelling distance N.N.E. from the city of Ahmednuggur. This place consists of two divisions, each of them completely walled, and separated by a rivulet. The eastern division is the most considerable and seems to have been built on a regular plan.

Soobramani.—A mountain peak among the Western Ghauts, in the province of Canara, which towers above the rest, having an elevation of 5,611 feet above the level of the sea. —(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

Sookait.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowtee, which in 1820 contained about 2,000 inhabitants; lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 76° 7′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sookertal.—A fortified town in the province of Delhi, thirty-five miles S. by W. from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 28′ N., lon. 78° E. West of it are entrenchments formerly excavated by Zabeta Khan.

Sookhlana.—A small town in the province of Malwa, situated on the east bank of the Chamlee river, in the pergunnah of Nolye.

Sooksagor.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Nuddea, about thirty-one miles N. from Calcutta.

Sookulteerut.—A town in the

province of Gujerat, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, eight miles from Broach; lat. 21° 48′ N., lon. 73° 12′ E. In 1820 it belonged to the Guicowar, and contained about 500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sooloo Isles (*Suluk*).—A chain of islands in the Eastern seas, above sixty in number, extending from the north-eastern extremity of Borneo to the western extremity of Magindanao, and comprehended between the fourth and seventh degrees of north latitude. The island of Sooloo, from which the archipelago takes its name, is situated about lat. 6° N., lon. 121° E., and may be estimated at forty miles in length, by seven the average breadth. Viewed from the sea it presents a fine prospect, superior to the generality of Malay countries. The hills not being very high do not stop the clouds; it has not therefore any regular wet season like the large islands, but most rain falls during the south-west monsoon. Much rain also falls at the changes of the monsoons, especially the autumnal; but no storms accompany these changes, and indeed seldom occur at any time. There are several good harbours among these islands, particularly at Bewabewa, Tavetane, Tapool, Secasse, between Boobooan and Tapeeantana, south of Baseelan.

The island of Sooloo being small and populous, considerable attention is paid to agriculture. Rice is planted, but the crop is precarious on account of rain, for which reason they also cultivate many roots, such as the Spanish and sweet potatoe, and the St. Helena and China yams, the rice consumed being mostly imported from Magindanao. There are a great variety of excellent tropical fruits, such as oranges, jacks, dorians, custard-apples, mangoes, mangosteens, and rambosteens. The Sooloos have much intercourse with China, and many Chinese having settled among them, they have learned the arts of engrafting and improving their fruits.

The breed of horses is tolerably good, and Captain Forrest asserts that wild elephants are found in the central parts, which appears improbable, considering that the island is both small and populous. Spotted deer, goats, and black cattle are plenty, but the natives seldom take milk from the cows, or use it in any shape as an article of diet. They possess few sheep, and what they have are imported, but wild hogs abound and do infinite mischief. Owing to its geographical position, beyond the violence of the monsoons, Sooloo enjoys a perpetual summer, so that ships may anchor in the open roadstead within half gunshot of the town, there being no surf or dangerous banks. The fort, as it is called, scarcely deserves such a name, as in 1821 it was partly composed of large timbers, with an earthen embankment not above ten feet high. The naval and land forces of Sooloo consist of the same individuals afloat or on shore; their fleets, fishing, and trading prows.

In remote times, on account of its position between Magindanao and Borneo, Sooloo was the grand mart of all the Mahomedan states in this quarter of the Eastern sea. The Portuguese do not appear to have ever colonized or conquered these islands but they visited them frequently. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, while the trade of Japan continued open, two or three ships came from thence annually, bringing silver, amber, chests, cabinets, and other curiosities made of fragrant and beautiful woods, besides great quantities of silks and porcelain from China. Sooloo was also then visited by vessels from Java, Sumatra, Ceylon, and the coast of Coromandel, the whole Eastern archipelago having then attained a height of prosperity and civilization, from which it has ever since been degenerating.

At present two rich junks, of about 800 tons, arrive annually from Amoy loaded with brass salvers, iron in small pieces, sugar candy, raw silk, black

nankin, white strong linen, kangans, iron pans, china-ware, flowered silks, tea, cutlery, hard-ware, brass wire, gongs, beads, and fireworks. As a return cargo they export, principally to China, biche-de-mar, both black and white, wax, pearl oyster-shells, birds'-nests, and tortoise-shell. Besides these they take a sea-weed named agal agal, used as a gum or glue, caroosng oil, clove bark, black wood, rattans, sago, various barks for dyeing, cassia, pepper, native camphor, sandal-wood, spices, pearls, and curious shells for grotto-work.

Pearls, as an article of trade, are only procurable among dangerous shoals, so numerous in the narrow channels and passages of the Sooloo Islands, and they are known throughout the whole archipelago by the Sanscrit name of Mutya, pronounced Mootee. About the value of 25,000 dollars' worth of pearls and 70,000 dollars' of mother-of-pearl shell are annually carried from hence to China; and but for the turbulent and piratical habits of the Sooloos, much more might be exported. The same seas are the only parts of the archipelago where cowries are found, and exported by the Buggesses to the western marts, as also the shells of the gigantic cockle.

The Sooloos get most of their sago, and many other articles that they sell to the Chinese, such as biche-de-mar, cowries, tortoise-shell, &c., from the Tedong or Tiroon people, on the north-eastern coast of Borneo; and in order to monopolize the trade, they endeavour to prevent all intercourse between them and foreign nations. With Magindanao a considerable commerce is also carried on, the Sooloos receiving from thence rice, clean and in the husk, for which they usually pay in China goods. Among these islands many Biajoos, or wandering sea-gypsies, are seen, whose language differs essentially from that of the Sooloos. The Buggesses trade largely with Sooloo, bringing chiefly cotton cloth from Celebes, their native country. The sultan of Sooloo, like other Malay chieftains, is the principal merchant within his own dominions.

The sovereignty of Sooloo is hereditary, and the constitution a sort of feudal aristocracy, the direct power of the sultan being much controlled and frequently counterpoised by that of the dattoos, or nobles, who tyrannize over the people. The chief functionaries are also hereditary. The raja laut, or lord of the sea, is high admiral. There are many towns on the sea-coast, inland chiefly straggling huts and hamlets; but there are no horaforas, or savage aboriginals. There is a law both here and at Magindanao, that no Chinese can be made a slave; but slaves of all other classes are numerous. The Sooloos seldom go to foreign parts in their own vessels, except on predatory excursions to make slaves among the Philippines. They are little accustomed to the use of fire-arms, depending mostly on the lance, sword, and creese, at the use of which all ranks are dexterous; and being naturally of a martial turn, they had subdued, at an early period, not only all the adjacent small isles, but a great part of the north-east coast of Borneo. They appear to be innately sanguinary and treacherous, on which account their alliance often proves much more dangerous than their open hostility.

The Sooloo islanders have reached a more advanced stage of civilization than the Magindanese have yet attained. They are fond of music, and have Philippine slaves who play to them on the violin. In 1773 Capt. Forrest saw the sultan dance a minuet with his niece, and the dattoos, or nobles, go down a country dance, accomplishments acquired from the Spaniards. Indeed, the British seem to be the only nation that makes no impression or alteration on the natives with whom they associate. In all the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch colonies, some approximation of manners and customs has taken place; go a mile from Madras or Calcutta, and the native manners are as pure as in the centre of Hindostan. The men generally go dressed in white waistcoats, but-

toned down to the middle, and white breeches; the ladies wear a fine white waistcoat, fitted close, with a petticoat over drawers which reach to the knee. They are not, as in most Mahomedan countries, kept strictly confined, but allowed to go abroad, as in Europe. In their families are many Philippine and some Spanish slaves, usually purchased from the Illanon and Magindanese cruizers, over whom they possess unlimited power of life, death, and torture. Assassination among the Sooloos is scarcely reckoned a crime, in that the only virtue they claim is courage, always mixed with treachery; honesty, industry, or hospitality, are qualities entirely foreign to their natures.

The Sooloo dialect is a very mixed one, derived mostly from the Malay, Javanese, and Tagala. They have adopted the Malay character, and have a few books in that tongue, with which they are chiefly supplied by the trading Buggesses. There are some who have a smattering of Arabic; but a large proportion, even of the nobles, cannot read or write. They pretend to have records relating to the discovery of the magnet, and the art of manufacturing gunpowder, but they are probably indebted for both to the Chinese; they are, however, good practical navigators. The Sooloos are of the Soonee Mahomedan sect; but their zeal for that faith or attention to its ordinances are feeble and capricious. Their mosques are mean, and destitute of all decoration, internal or external, and they rarely perform the pilgrimage to Mecca. One inveterate quality, however, of the true Mussulman they possess in perfection, which is hatred to the Spaniards and their religion. Although the Mahomedan persuasion be that of the government, a large proportion of its subjects are ignorant of its precepts, and still follow their own more barbarous superstitions. In A.D. 1773 the calipha, or high-priest of Sooloo, was a Turk, who had travelled much in Europe.

The Sooloos have a tradition that their island once formed part of an ancient Bornean empire founded by the Chinese; but the Magindanese assert, without however producing any proof, that the Sooloos were formerly subject to them. From the day the Spanish colonies were first planted in the Philippines to the most recent period, an unceasing warfare has subsisted between them and the Sooloos, in which the latter have generally had the advantage, although they occasionally experienced great reverses. In A.D. 1637 Don Sebastian Hurtado, then governor of the Philippines, conquered Sooloo and Magindanao, after an obstinate struggle, but was subsequently obliged to abandon them and withdraw the garrisons. Remains of Spanish buildings are still to be seen in the Sooloo capital. In 1775 the Sooloos attacked a settlement formed by the British East-India Company at a great expense, on the small island of Balambangan, off the north-west coast of Borneo, and drove the settlers on board their ships. In that year the reigning sultan was Israel, the son of Sultan Ameer ul Momeneen. This monarch had received his education at Manilla, where he and his father were long held in captivity, until released on the capture of that city by the British, in 1762. The sultans of Sooloo have more than once sent envoys to Pekin.

The Sooloo islanders still retain their piratical and treacherous habits completely unchanged, and apparently unchangeable. In A.D. 1821 a most perfidious and premeditated attack was suddenly made at Tawee Tawee, by Dattoo Moolook, one of the Sooloo nobles (who with his adherents pretended to embark as a passenger), on the Sea Flower, a British country trader, commanded by Lieut. Spiers; but after a short and most slaughterous conflict, such of the assailants as survived were compelled to jump overboard; among the slain stretched on the deck was the traitor himself. Fortunately the Sea Flower, among her crew, had more than the usual proportion of Europeans; yet

she lost four killed, and ten wounded. British and foreign vessels continued, notwithstanding, to trade as usual, such accidents among Malay states not being considered as in the slightest degree disturbing the harmony of commercial relations.

In A.D. 1812 Mr. Hunt was deputed by Sir Thomas Raffles from Java to Sooloo, where he resided almost two years, and on his return delivered in a report on this Algiers of the East to the government of Prince of Wales' Island. In 1821 Lieut. Spiers reported that it was difficult to say whether the Sooloos were at peace or war with the Spaniards; for while vessels from Manilla were trading amicably in the harbour of Sooloo, they could see fleets of prows sailing off to plunder their own dominions in the Philippines. In 1824 an expedition from Manilla, with a considerable land force on board, scoured and laid waste the coasts of Sooloo, Basseelan, and Magindanao, in revenge for piracies committed by the Malay tribes on their own possessions.—(*Forrest, Dalrymple, Leyden, Crawfurd, Hunt, Lieut. Spiers, Gov. Phillips, &c.*)

SOOLTANPOOR.—A town in the province of Lahore, forty-six miles N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 31° 59′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E.

SOOMNA.—A village and mud fort, the residence of a zemindar, in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, fourteen miles N. by E. from the fort of Alighur. A spacious gunge and serai have been erected by the zemindar without the walls, at a short distance from the village. This place in 1820 was erroneously laid down and misnamed in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SOONAM.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty-six miles S.W. from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 7′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

SOONDA (*or Sudha*).—A small territorial division situated above the ghauts, but comprehended in the British province and district of Canara. The town of Soonda, or rather its ruins, are in lat. 14° 43′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E., forty-four miles N.E. from Onore.

During the sway of its native rajas this country is said to have been cultivated, and the town of Soonda large and populous, comprehending, according to native authorities, three miles each way within the walls, and fully occupied with houses; but the district having been repeatedly the seat of war between Hyder and the Maharattas, has been greatly devastated, and the houses in the town reduced to less than one hundred. When Hyder first obtained possession, it was said to contain 10,000. The outermost wall of Soonda was estimated by the natives to have been forty-eight miles in circumference, and there were formerly three lines of fortifications around the city. Within the two spaces surrounded by the outer lines, the houses were scattered in small clumps, with gardens between them; but the whole country is now very thinly inhabited. All the arable land in Soonda is considered the property of the sovereign; but the value of an estate is fixed, and so long as the tenant pays his rent, it is not customary to turn him or his heirs out of possession. All the villages extending along the old Maharatta frontier belong to government, but they are in a very desolate condition.

Imody Sedasiva, the last independent raja or prince of Soonda, was expelled by Hyder in 1763, when he sought refuge at Goa, and surrendered to the Portuguese the whole of his territory below the ghauts for a stipulated pension. In A.D. 1799 this territory was transferred to the British government, and annexed to the jurisdiction of Canara. In 1814 the deposed raja of Soonda requested permission to visit Madras, for the ostensible purpose of obtaining medical advice, but in reality to lay his distressed condition before the members of that presidency. He was, however, refused permission, and recommended to state his grievances in writing, and rely with confidence on

the justice of the British government. He was also warned not to place the slightest reliance on the deceitful and interested agency of the hordes of private intriguers at Madras. It subsequently appeared that he had had the folly to apply for the intercession of the Prince Regent of Portugal, to obtain the restoration of the country of Soonda; and although petitioning the British government as a pauper, had accompanied his letters with some valuable presents to the Portuguese potentate and to his minister of colonies.—(*F. Buchanan, Wilkes, Fifth Report, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

SOONDERSEE.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the east side of the Cali Sinde river, twenty-one miles S.W. from Shujawulpoor; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E. It suffered greatly from the Pindaries, but in 1820 still contained 512 houses. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SOONDOOR.—A town, temple, and valley in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, which in 1814, although surrounded by the British dominions, was in direct subjection to the Peshwa. The fortress is strong and insulated by a chain of hills, through which there is a pathway leading from the British territories to the pagoda, which stands on the top of the southern extremity of the Soondoor hills. It belongs to the family of Jeswunt Row Gorepara, who was formerly ambassador from Sindia, and now receives a pension from the British government; but his claims being disputed by the Peshwa, it required the interference of the British government to terminate their disputes.

Soondoor was always held in high estimation by the ex-Peshwa Bajerow as a place of religious pilgrimage. In 1807, and again in 1815, he paid a visit to the temple of Cartic Swamy (the Hindoo Mars), accompanied by an enormous crowd of followers, who devastated the country, and destroyed the crops. At the date last mentioned Soondoor was possessed by Sewa Row, the son of Cundee Row Gorepara, who was then imprisoned at Poona, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole pilgrimage was merely a cloak to conceal the Peshwa's intention to obtain possession of the place by fraud or force.—(*Chaplin, Elphinstone, &c.*)

SOONEE.—A village in Berar, twelve miles N. from Pundercourah, where, in 1818, the army of the Peshwa Bajerow was met and defeated by Colonel Adams, who had only a single regiment of cavalry with him and some horse artillery. Five guns, the only remaining ones he had, three elephants and 200 camels were captured. The elephants were those that always preceded Bajerow's line of march, and on which his treasure was usually laden: but only 11,000 rupees were found on them, the rest having been made away with during the confusion. The Peshwa himself escaped by mounting a horse and galloping off as soon as the British troops appeared, but one of his palanquins, perforated by a round shot, was taken. The British loss was only two wounded, the enemy having never stood the charge; while by the effect of a hot pursuit, and more especially of the horse artillery, a great many of the Maharattas were left dead on the field.—(*Prinsep, &c.*)

SOONEL.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighty miles N. from Oojein; lat. 24° 33′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E. This is a place of considerable extent, and of a square form, having two broad streets that cross each other at right angles in the middle of the town. The houses are two stories high, built with remarkable regularity, and, as well as the outer walls, composed partly of stone and partly of brick.—(*Hunter, Fullarton, &c.*)

SOONERGONG (*Suvarna grama, the golden village*).—This is reputed to have been once a large city, the provincial capital of the eastern division of Bengal, before Dacca was in existence, but is now dwindled down to a village, situated on one of the

branches of the Brahmaputra, about thirteen miles S.E. from Dacca; lat. 23° 39′ N., lon. 90° 43′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is celebrated for the manufacture of a beautiful cloth named cassas (cossaes), and the fabric it still produces justify to the present generation its ancient renown.

SOONGHUR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, thirty miles east from Surat; lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 73° 37′ E.

SOONGNUM.—A substantial village in Northern Hindostan, on the Rushkolang river, a tributary to the Sutuleje, 9,350 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 45′ N., lon. 78° 31′ E. This place stands in the valley of Darbung, on the right side of the Sutuleje, where the mountains rise to a tremendous height, and separate it from the Spiti district belonging to Lahdack. In 1821 this village contained seventy families, mostly traders to Lahdack, Garoo, and Rodauk. The climate here permits two annual crops of barley, ogul, and phaphur.—(*Public Journals, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

SOONGROOR.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles west of Pattiallah; lat. 30° 17′ N., lon. 75° 54′ E.

SOONKAUR (*Sancara*).—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-seven miles south from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 31′ N., lon. 75° 36′ E.

SOONTH.—A small principality in the province of Gujerat, eighty miles E. by N. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 73° 55′ E. It is contiguous to the Lunawara subdivision, and on the east extends into the open country nearly as far as the Calibere tank, in the vicinity of the Gudara district. It is sometimes called South Rampoor, from a village of the latter name adjoining.

The fort and town of Soonth (which were unknown to Europeans until 1803) stand four miles from the open country to the westward, from which it is separated by a continuance of jungly hills of a moderate elevation. The fort is built on the western face of a high rocky hill, and contains a curiously constructed palace. It is only, however, of consequence as commanding an important pass, for it is otherwise a poor and miserable place, although considered by the raja impregnable, and viewed by him with much satisfaction. Like other Rajpoot leaders, the reigning chief in 1806 was greatly addicted to opium, and although only twenty-eight years of age, exemplified the baneful effects of that drug in a premature decay of body and mind. He objected, however, most strenuously to Soonth's becoming a thoroughfare either for commerce or armies, foreseeing the speedy dissolution of his sway as a consequence, and preferring ignorance, opium, and independence, to the very doubtful advantages of a civilized state.

The low lands of Soonth yield rice, but scarcely any other grain; the hilly parts afford pasture to the rice carriers; but during the hot season are so parched and burned up, that they are deserted even by the savage and untractable Bheels, who are the temporary occupiers of these dreary wastes. Doubts having arisen in 1803 whether Soonth was within the limits of Gujerat, the point was decided in the affirmative by Colonel Walker, after reference to certain documents compiled from the records at Ahmedabad by an ancient dewan of the province. In 1819 the gross revenues of Soonth amounted to about 45,000 rupees.—(*Burr, Malcolm, &c.*)

SOOPOOR.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, sixty-two miles N.N.E. from the town of Goruckpoor; lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 84° 3′ E.

SOORAPOOR (*Suryapura*). — A town in the province of Bejapoor, sixty-five miles S.E. from the city of that name; lat. 13° 36′ N., lon. 76° 47′ E.

SOOROOTOO ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about fifteen miles in circumference, situated off the west coast of Borneo; lat. 1° 45′ N., lon. 108° 40′ E. This island lies W.S.W. from Cavimata, and between them there is a sufficient passage which a ship might run through if compelled by necessity. Wood and water are to be found on the west side of Soorootoo, and also plenty of stock, such as fowls and buffaloes. —(*Elmore, &c.*)

SOOPAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, eleven miles N.E. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 19′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E.

SOORPAL.—A Brahmin village, with a ghaut and temple, in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the left bank of the Krishna river, about thirty-eight miles travelling distance S.W. from that city. The Krishna here is about one-third of a mile in breadth, and is crossed in a basket boat covered with hides.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SOORUJGHUR.—A town in Northern Hindostan, four miles S.S.E. from Malown; lat. 31° 10′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E.

SOORUJPOOR (*Serajpura*).—A walled village in the province of Delhi, district of Merut, eighteen miles S.E. from the city of Delhi.

SOORY.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birboom, of which it is the modern capital; lat. 23° 54′ N., lon. 87° 32′ E., fifty miles S.W. from Moorshedabad. The country about Soory is high, undulating, and open, with scarcely a tree to be seen, although the western jungle approaches within a few miles of the station. The soil is hard, and strongly impregnated with iron; and the roads in the neighbourhood, owing to the excellence of this material, the best probably in Bengal.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SOOSAUREE.—A small town in the province of Malwa, two miles from Kookaee, which in 1820 was the residence of Tantia, but belonged to the raja of Dhar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

SOOSNEER.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-one miles travelling distance from Auggur; lat. 23° 59′ N., lon. 76° 8′ E. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, but was rented by Zalim Singh of Kotah. There is here a small stone fort, and the town is enclosed by a weak wall, without ditch or outwork. The red iron soil does not properly commence until Soosneer is passed about eight miles on the road to Auggur.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

SOOSOOHOONAN (*in Java*).—See SOLO or SURYACARTA.

SOOTAR.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, populous and well-built, situated in the territories of the Satara raja, about seven miles N. by E. from the town of Satara.

SOOTY.—A town in the province of Bengal, thirty miles N.N.W. from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 26′ N., lon. 88° 2′ E. In 1757, when Seraje ud Dowlah apprehended an attack from the English, believing that their ships of war could proceed up the eastern branch of the Ganges to the northern point of Cossimbazar island, and from thence down the Bhagirathi to Moorshedabad, he commanded immense piles to be driven into the river at Sooty, by which it has been rendered unnavigable for any construction of vessel larger than boats, and even for these during a part only of the year. In 1763 an action was fought here between the British troops and those of Meer Cossim, in which the latter were defeated.—(*Stewart, Seid Gholaum Hossein, &c.*)

SOPING (*Sofin*).—A principality in Celebes, anciently one of the most powerful on the island. It extends partly along the western shore of the bays of Boni and Tolo; to the north it is bounded by a great lake, and on the south it borders on Lamoerbo. Its chief production is rice, and, like

most of the states in Celebes, it appears to be as frequently subject to female as to male sovereigns, which is remarkable in a country professing to follow the Mahomedan faith. The natives of Soping are reckoned brave in war, and the policy pursued by the Dutch, of sowing dissensions among the petty states, has always given them a great deal of practice. In 1775 Soping is described as an independent state in alliance with the Dutch, but governed by its own king. —(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Soreth.—A district in the Gujerat peninsula, encompassing the Junaghur mountains, and situated between the twenty-first and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. To the north and west it is bounded by Burudda and Hallaur, on the south by Babreeawar, and on the east by Cattywar. When Abul Fazel wrote it appears to have comprehended a large proportion of the Gujerat peninsula prior to the irruption of the Catties.

The country of Soreth, including Junaghur, its capital, was anciently governed by rajas of the Churassama tribe, during which dynasty it is described as enjoying a high degree of prosperity, while the neighbouring territories were harassed by contending Mahomedan chiefs. In process of time it also fell a prey to the followers of the Arabian prophet, who gradually reduced it to the state of barbarism and desolation which it now exhibits. The ancient residence of the Soreth rajas was at Runtella, but was afterwards transferred to Junaghur, which in A.D. 1472 surrendered to Sultan Mahmood Begra, when Raja Row Mundybak was ordered to repeat the Mahomedan creed. During the siege few guns were used on either side, the garrison principally defending themselves with bows and arrows. From this era Soreth remained subject to Mahomedan princes, and when Gujerat was conquered by Acber became a dependence of the great Delhi empire, under the immediate superintendence of the soubahdar of Ahmedabad.

About 1735, when the Mogul empire had fallen to pieces, it became again independent, having been seized on with Junaghur, the metropolis, by Shere Khan Babi, a soldier of fortune, whose descendant still fills the throne. But his, or any other authority, was very imperfectly established, every fortress, town, hill, or village, being occupied by petty chiefs and communities, hostile to each other, and to every species of regularity and subordination. Towards the conclusion of the eighteenth century many of these dens of thieves were reduced by the energy of Ambajee, dewan to the nabob of Junaghur, who was afterwards assassinated by his master Hamet Khan, the reigning nabob, in 1808. Indeed for the thirty years prior to 1810, this principality exhibited an unceasing scene of revolutions, intrigues, and assassinations, in perseverance and activity, incredible to a mere European politician.—(*Col. Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Soriapett.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, sixty-five miles E. by S. from the capital; lat. 17° 10′ N., lon. 79° 35′ E.

Sorohl.—A small town with two fine tanks, and the remains of a mud fort, situated in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, about twenty-three miles S.W. from Balasore.

Sourabhaya.—See Surabaya.

Souracarta (*or Suryacarta*).—See Solo in Java.

Sources of the Ganges.—In old maps this mountainous region is named Badrycazram (Vadarica Asrama), which signifies the bower of Vadarica trees; but until lately had never been explored except by some wandering Hindoo devotees, searching for the sources of their sacred river, here concealed from view by mounds of never-melting snow. The face of the country is composed of the third ridge of mountains from

the Gangetic plain, the fourth or highest range being that which separates Hindostan from Tibet, or southern Tartary. No variety of surface therefore can be expected, hill succeeding hill, and precipice precipice, with chasms filled with drifted snow, until at length the highest range is attained, the descent of which to the north is, comparatively with the other, so gentle, that it has always been described as table-land. Through these mountains there are various communications, by which salt is brought from Tibet; one lies a little way west of Gangoutri; two others lead from the vicinity of Bhadrinath. The passage by Niti is reckoned the best through the Himalaya in these western parts, and will probably ere long be so improved as to render this hitherto formidable pass of very easy access. Rock crystal is said to be found in the vicinity of the snow, where, although the cold is intense, many sheep are pastured.

Different portions of this country are designated by different names, but it is difficult to discriminate their limits. The frontier district of Tungsah is considered to belong to what is here called Bhote or Tibet, and their inhabitants pay their land tribute to a collector, who comes from Chaprung, a Chinese dependency. It also furnishes to the raja of Bussaher, every third year, a blanket per man, besides a small complimentary tribute of raisins to the Gurwal raja. The inhabitants of Tungsah are termed Dobashies, from their speaking the languages both of Gurwal and Tibet. Above Sukhi and Jhala the country is not inhabited, nor indeed is it habitable beyond these places.

By the hill natives and the low country Hindoos, the whole tract of country close to the highest ridge of Himalaya is termed Bhote, and the descriptions of the territory similarly situated, given under the articles Nepaul and Bhutant, strictly apply to this region also, both with respect to its physical appearance and to its productions, animal, vegetable, and mineral. Vyas, the great legislator of the Brahminical Hindoos, together with many thousand saints and sages of the early yugs or ages, are supposed by that people to be still alive in a large cavern, somewhere in this remote and sacred region, but the place of their domicile has never yet been discovered by their wandering votaries, who continue, notwithstanding, patiently to seek what they are doomed never to find.—(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Sorrrera.—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty-five miles west from the Chilka lake; lat. 19° 49′ N., lon. 84° 49′ E.

Sours.—See Orissa Province.

South-west Monsoon.—See India South of the Krishna River.

Sow (*or Sew*) River.—This river has its source in the secondary mountains that form the western boundary of the Malwa province, and flowing past the towns of Mundessor and Narghur, joins the Chumbul near the village of Ailwer, after a winding course of fifty miles.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sowlafghur.—A hill-fort in the province of Gundwana, sixteen miles south of Sookurtully; lat. 22° 6′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E.

Spiti.—A district in little Tibet, situated between Chinese Tartary, Lahdack, Cooloo, and Bussaher, and paying tribute to each. The inhabitants are all Tartars, and follow the Lama religion. The villages are from 12,000 to 12,500 feet above the level of the sea, and towards Lahdack the habitations must be still more elevated, the country more barren, and the climate more inhospitable.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

Spiti River (*or Li river*).—A river of Tartary, the great western branch of the Sutuleje, which has its source south of Leh or Lahdack, from whence its course is southerly until it joins the Sutuleje, and loses its name in lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 78° 38′ E. (near the village of Namjia, the last in Bussaher), where in appear-

ance it is very little inferior to the Sutuleje. At the confluence there is a fort named Danka. In the lower part of its course the Spiti waters the Tartar district of Hagarang, subject to Bussaher; in the upper part it passes through the Lahdack districts of Spiti and Spino in two branches.—(*Capt. Hodgson, Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

SOOLONK.—A village in the island of Java, situated on the great southern ocean, 104 miles S. from Samarang; lat. 8° S., lon. 110° 20′ E. There are numerous sandhills in this vicinity, thrown up by the waves on the flat shore, while on most other parts of this extensive coast huge cliffs oppose the surf, and render the shore in many places inaccessible. Close to the beach are several bungalows, belonging to the sultan and his family, who occasionally resort hither for the benefit of sea bathing. Adjoining is a beautiful grotto, formed by the petrified trunks, roots, and lower branches of a small grove, through which runs a clear stream, possessing the petrifying quality. Near the spring is a small temple, and a few hundred yards west are hot mineral springs, close to the water's edge. These fountains have a strong sulphurous smell, and in one of them the thermometer ascended to 122° Fahrenheit.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

SRAVANA BELGULA.—A village in the territories of the Mysore raja, thirty-three miles N. by W. from Seringapatam: lat. 12° 51′ N., lon. 76° 42′ E. This place is celebrated as being the principal seat of the Jain worship, once so prevalent over the south of India. Near to the village are two rocky hills, on one of which, named Indra Betta, is a temple of the kind named Busty, and a high place with a colossal statue of Gomuta Raya, within a stone enclosure at the summit. The height of the statue is seventy feet three inches and the Duke of Wellington, after inspection, was of opinion that the rock had been cut down until nothing but the image remained. The head of the figure is tolerably well executed, but the sculpture of the limbs very defective. The village below, though not large, is, like most religious places, well built and comfortably peopled. It contains a considerable Jain temple, and on the opposite hill of Chandragiri there are no less than fifteen temples of the same sort.

The Jains constitute a sect of Hindoos differing in some important tenets from the Brahminical, but following in other respects similar practices. The essential character of Hindoo institutions is the distribution of the people into four great tribes. The Jainas admit the same division into four great tribes, Brahmins, Khetries, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and perform like ceremonies from the birth of a male to his marriage. They observe similar fasts, and practice still more strictly the received maxims of refraining from injury to any sentient being. They appear to recognize as subordinate deities, some, if not all the gods of the prevailing sects; but do not worship in particular the five principal gods of these sects, nor address prayers nor perform sacrifices to the sun or fire. They differ also from the Brahminical Hindoos in assigning the highest place to certain deified saints, who, according to their creed, have successively become superior gods. Another doctrine in which they materially disagree with the orthodox Hindoos, is the rejection of the Vedas, the divine authority of which they deny.

In this last particular the Jains agree with the Buddhists, or Saugatas, who equally deny the divine authority of the Vedas, and who in a similar manner worship certain eminent saints, admitting likewise as subordinate deities the whole pantheon of the orthodox Hindoos. These two sects (the Jains and Buddhists) differ in regard to the history of the personages whom they have deified, and it may hence be concluded that they had distinct founders but the original notion seems to have been the same. All agree in the belief of transmigration. Jaina priest

usually wear a broom adapted to sweep insects out of the way, lest they should tread on the minutest being. In Hindostan the Jains are usually called Syauras, but distinguish themselves into Sravacas (Shrawuks) and Yaitis, or laity and clergy.

Parswa or Parswanath, the twenty-third deified saint of the Jains, and who perhaps was the founder of the sect, was born in the suburbs of Benares, and died at the age of 100 years, on mount Samet at Parsonauth, among the hills bordering Bengal and Bahar. Some of the other sanctified places of the Jains are Papapuri near Rajugriha in Bahar; Champapuri near Boglipoor; Chandravati, distant ten miles from Benares; and the ancient city of Hastinapoor in the Delhi province; also Sacrunjaya, said to be situated in the west of India. The mythology of the orthodox or Brahminical Hindoos, their present chronology adapted to astronomical periods, their legendary tales, and their mystical allegories are abundantly absurd; but the Jains and Buddhists greatly surpass them in monstrous exaggerations of the same kind.

This village (Sravana Belgula) is wholly inhabited by Jainas, who differ considerably from those of Tulava (Canara). They assert that the Bunts of Tulava are Vaisyas, and will not acknowledge that any Sudras belong to their sect. In Hindostan proper, if not likewise in the Deccan and south of India, the Jainas are all of one caste, the Vaisya; but the Brahmins consider them to be misguided Khetries; they call themselves Vaisyas. On renouncing the heresies of the Jaina sect, they take their place among the orthodox Hindoos as belonging to a particular caste (Khetri or Vaisya). The representative of the family of Juggeth Set'h, the great bankers, who with many of his kindred was converted, many years ago, from the Jaina to the orthodox faith, is a conspicuous instance. Such admission would not have been granted to a convert who had not already caste as a Hindoo. —(*Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Col. Mackenzie, &c.*)

SRIGHUR.—A fort or peak in the province of Lahore, chiefship of Cooloo, situated on the right bank of the Sutulcje; lat. 31° 24′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E.; elevation above the sea 8,424 feet.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

SRI KANTA.—A peak in Northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, round which the Ganges winds, where it penetrates through the base of the south-west Himalaya range; lat. 30° 57 N., lon. 78° 47′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 20,296 feet.

SRIMUTTRA (*Sri Mathura*).—A town of considerable size in the province of Agra, situated on a naked rock of red-stone; lat. 26°41′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E. Working the red-stone into slabs furnishes employment for the greater part of the inhabitants.—(*Broughton, &c.*)

SRI NARRAIN (*Sri Narayana*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, to which there is convenient water carriage from Cuttack; it would consequently be a great improvement if an artillery road were made between this place and Mundela, from whence (if the Nerbudda be navigable) heavy goods and stores might be conveyed to central Hindostan, and to all the British stations in the vicinity of that river. In the favourable monsoon the voyage from Cuttack to Sri Narrain, where there is an extensive ghaut of masonry, occupies only thirty-five days: here the goods might be warehoused until the dry season, and then transported by land through Ruttunpoor and Pindea Nowaghur to Mundela, where they would arrive about the end of November; from Mundela they might be floated down the Nerbudda. From Sri Narrain to Mundela the distance in a strait line, according to the maps, does not exceed 150 miles.—(*Major Roughsedge, &c.*)

SRI PERMATURU.—A small town

in the Carnatic province, twenty-four miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E. This town is celebrated as the birth-place of Rama Anuja Acharya, the great Brahmin saint and reformer, and the founder of a sect. His birth is supposed to have happened in A.D. 1016. Before the appearance of Rama Anuja the most prevalent sects in the neighbourhood were the followers of Buddha and the Charvaca (Shrawuks) or Jains, both of which have been long extinct in this section of Hindostan.

STATES ADJACENT TO ASSAM.—See ASSAM.

SUBBULGHUR.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty-five miles S.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

SUBBULGHUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, about eighteen miles south from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E. This place stands in the midst of the vast jungle which here bounds the Ganges to the east, and extends north to the hills opposite to Hurdwar. Its site is said to be now an uninhabited wilderness.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

SUBHATOO.—A small hill-fort or military post in Northern Hindostan, 4,205 feet above the level of the sea, and the head-quarters of a battalion; lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 76° 59′ E. The surrounding tract has become populous and cultivated since the establishment of a British post here.

SUBROY (*Siva raya*).—A small town in the province of Cutch, situated on the road from Luckput Bunder to Mandavie, from which it is distant twenty-three miles to the north-west. It stands on a rising ground, and is defended by a small castle.

SUBUNREEKA RIVER (*suvarna reka, with golden sands*).—This river has its source in the province of Bahar, division of Chuta Nagpoor, whence it flows in a south-easterly direction, until after a winding course of about 250 miles, it falls into the bay of Bengal. For many years prior to the conquest of Bengal by the British this river had formed the southern boundary of that soubah, under the different native governments, and continued subsequently to mark the boundary until 1803, when the acquisition of Cuttack brought the Bengal and Madras presidencies for the first time into contact.

SUCCADANA.—A town on the west coast of the island of Borneo, and a considerable mart for the sale of opium. It is a custom here, as at all the Eastern ports, to give a present at the first audience, in proportion to the rank of the person visited. The king's present here is about fifty dollars, the raja's thirty; the shahbunder and agent twenty each. The raja and his family commonly monopolize the sale of opium.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

SUFFEEDUN.—A town in the province of Delhi, eighteen miles west of Paniput; lat. 29° 24′ N., lon. 76° 39′ E.

SUGOULY.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, situated on the south side of the Boori (old) Gunduck river, which has its source in the neighbourhood of Somaisir. It is navigable in boats during the greater part of the year as high up as Sugouly.

SUGRIVA PERWUTTUM.—The name of a peak of very difficult access in the province of Gundwana, not far from Badrachellum, where Hoonimaun is said to have sat while he recruited his army of monkeys preparatory to the invasion of Ceylon under the great Rama.—(*Voysey, &c.*)

SUGUD BOYAN BAY.—A bay in the island of Magindanao, where there is a good harbour, near to which the indigo plant grows spontaneously, and in the vicinity are wild horses, cattle, and deer. The entrance into this bay is only five miles wide.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

SUJANPOOR.—A considerable town in the province of Lahore, containing

about 2,000 houses, situated on the east bank of the Beyah river, thirty miles east from Kangra. According to native authority it is surrounded by lines twelve coss in circumference. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Sukaid (*Sukheta*). — A narrow tract of country in the province of Lahore, extending along the north bank of the Sutuleje river, which here by a great circumflexion flows from the south-east to the north-west. In 1810 this territory was said to yield to its chief (Perkhaush Sen) a lack of rupees per annum. Sukaid the capital contains about 500 houses; lat. 31° 27′ N., lon. 76° 58′ E., fifteen miles N.E. from Belaspoor.—(*F. Buchanan, Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

Sulkea.—A populous town in the province of Bengal, situated on the west bank of the river Hooghly, immediately opposite to the city of Calcutta. The government have here extensive warehouses for the reception of salt, imported under their license from the Northern circars and other provinces of India.

Suloombur.—A town in the province of Malwa, forty-three miles S.S.E. from Odeypoor; lat. 24°18′ N., lon. 74° 20′ E.

Sultangunge. — A town in the province of Oude, forty-five miles W.N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 59′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

Sultangunge.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, between Boglipoor and Monghir. There is a small mosque here on the summit of a projecting cliff; and at about a furlong's distance to the westward, in the midst of the river, is the picturesque rock of Janguira, with its rude sculptures and fantastic Hindoo buildings, the residence of an old fakeer, who (1820) has inhabited its apex for the last half century.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Sultanpet.—A village among the Western Ghauts in the province of Canara, forty-four miles E.N.E. from Mangalore; lat. 13° 10′ N., lon. 75° 34′ E. In the neighbourhood of this place there is a stupendous fortified mountain, 5,000 feet in perpendicular height above the level of the sea. Although long, the road to the top of it is of easy ascent. The fortifications were erected during an early period of the Bednore government; and when Hyder took that city the ranny attempted to make her escape to this droog, but was pursued and captured.—(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

Sultanpoor.—A town in the Lahore province, twenty-seven miles south from Amritsir; lat. 31° 13′ N., lon. 74° 56′ E.

Sultanpoor.—A town in the province of Candeish, ninety-seven miles E.N.E. from Surat; lat. 21° 38′ N., lon. 74° 34′ E. So late as 1804 this was a large and flourishing place, the head of a district yielding a revenue of eight lacks, but so severely did it suffer by the oppressive measures of Holcar's government, that in 1816 it was little better than a mass of ruins, and the territory from hence to Boorhanpoor a scene of desolation.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Sumaun.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-four miles north from Etaweh; lat. 27° 7′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

SUMATRA.

A large island in the Eastern seas, divided obliquely by the equator into almost equal parts, and extending further west than any of the Sunda chain. Its northern point stretches into the bay of Bengal; its south-west coast is exposed to the great Indian ocean; towards the south-east it is separated by the straits of Sunda from the island of Java, on the east by the China and Eastern seas from Borneo and other islands, and on the north-east by the straits of Malacca from the Malay peninsula. In length it may be estimated at 1,050 miles, by 165 miles the average breadth. Among the Eastern people

generally, and the better-informed part of the natives, this island is known by the name of Pulo Purichu and Indalas; the origin of the term Sumatra being quite uncertain. By Marco Polo it is called Java Minor, and by the Javanese the Land of Palembang.

Reckoning from Acheen head to the entrance of the straits of Banca, the north-eastern coast of Sumatra extends in length at least nine hundred miles, naturally divided into three portions; the first, extending from the straits of Banca to the river Reccan, a distance of about 500 miles, is low and flat, without a mountain in view, and abounds in large rivers, while its coast is covered with considerable alluvial islands and sand-banks. This is the country of sago, of the rattan, dragon's-blood, and benzoin. The second division, stretching from the river Reccan to Diamond point, occupies a space of about 240 miles, with a low coast, but less swampy than the preceding division, and without large rivers or considerable islands. This is the country of black pepper. The third division extends from Diamond point to Acheen head, a distance of about 150 miles, with a coast comparatively bold and mountainous. This is probably the most abundant country in the world for the areca-nut, and from hence immense quantities are exported to Penang and Singapoor. The whole coast of Sumatra along the straits of Banca presents nothing to the eye but a low flat of interminable swamps and jungles. At Langkat, Delli, Batubara, and Assahan, on the north coast, the rise of tide is from eight to ten feet, at Siak twelve feet, and the same in the Reccan river.

A chain of mountains runs through the whole extent of Sumatra, the ranges being in many parts double and treble, but in general situated much nearer to the western than the opposite coast. The height of these mountains, although very great, is not sufficient to occasion their being covered with snow at any season of the year. Mount Ophir, situated immediately under the equinoctial line, is supposed to be the highest visible from the sea, above which level its summit is elevated 13,842 feet. The name was applied to the mountain by European navigators, and is wholly unknown to the natives. In 1817 a journey was performed from Manna to Passumah Lebar, and to the great mountain Gunong Dempo, which was ascended. It is visible from Bencoolen, bearing from Manna N.N.E., and from Padang Guchei north, and was roughly estimated by Mr. Presgrave and the other travellers at 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Between the above-mentioned ridges of mountains are extensive plains, considerably elevated above the surface of the maritime lands, where the air is cool, and the country well cleared and inhabited. In the intermediate spaces between the ranges of hills are also many large and beautiful lakes that extend at intervals through the heart of the country, and facilitate the communication; but as yet their situation, direction, and dimensions, are but very imperfectly known.

The western coast of Sumatra is extremely well supplied with water; springs are found every where, and rivers are numerous; but they are in general too shallow and rapid for the purposes of navigation. On the north-eastern coast, the mountains being at a greater distance from the sea, the rivers attain a greater magnitude of volume. The largest on the western coast are the Kataun, the Indrapora, the Tabayong, and Sinkel, which are inferior to the Palembang, the Jambee, the Indragiri, and the Siak of the eastern coast, which have as yet been but partially explored. These last are said by the natives to communicate in the centre of the island, a fact which it is extremely desirable to ascertain, as well as the condition of the countries through which they flow, more especially of Menancabow, the reputed metropolis of Sumatra, respecting which scarcely any thing has been learned since the time

of Mr. Marsden. In 1820 a mission under Mr. Ibbetson was despatched from Penang for this purpose, but, owing to his severe indisposition, and subsequent death, no progress was made.

The chain of islands lying parallel to the west coast of Sumatra probably at some remote period formed a part of the main, as the whole coast exhibit marks of the progress of insulation. This probability is corroborated by the direction of the islands, the similarity of rock, soil, and vegetable productions, and the regularity of soundings between them and the main, while beyond them depth is unfathomable. The sea appears to encroach on the northern coast, while it restores land on the southern. The production of islands on this coast, by the rapid increase of coral, is a remarkable operation of nature, experience having ascertained the formation of islands from this cause. Numerous clusters of islands in the Eastern seas are supported by bases of coral, and surrounded by shoals emerging from the surface. On the west coast of Sumatra the tides are estimated to rise only four feet, owing to its open, unconfined situation, which prevents an accumulation of water, as happens in narrow seas.

The whole south-eastern extremity of the island is little better than a forest of mangroves growing out of a morass. This tree extends its roots in a curved direction into the water from different parts of the trunk, forming arches to some distance until they reach the bottom covered by the sea. To these roots or inverted branches oysters and other small shell-fish adhere, and this circumstance has given rise to the assertion sometimes hazarded of oysters growing on trees. On this coast pieces of land, torn from the shore by the violence of river floods, with their shrubs and plants growing on them, are seen driving about with the wind and current, the roots being so closely matted and interwoven together as to retain a quantity of earth.

On the west coast of Sumatra, south of the equinoctial, the south east monsoon or dry season begins about May, and slackens in September. The north-west monsoon begins about November, and the hard rains cease about March. The monsoons there for the most part commence and leave off gradually; the months of April and May, October and November, generally affording variable weather and winds. On this island, as well as other tropical countries of considerable extent, the wind blows uniformly from the sea to the land for a certain number of hours in the twenty-four, and then veers round, and blows for about as many from the land to the sea. The air of Sumatra is in general more temperate than in many regions beyond the tropics. The thermometer is seldom known to rise higher in the shade than eighty-five degrees, and at sun-rise is usually so low as seventy degrees Fahrenheit. Inland among the hills the thermometer has been known so low as forty degrees, the cold felt being also much greater than that number of degrees usually indicates. Frost and snow are unknown to the inhabitants, but fogs are very prevalent and surprisingly dense.

In Sumatra there are a number of volcanic mountains, named in the Malay language Goonong api. Lava has been seen to flow from a considerable one near Priaman, but without causing any other damage than burning the woods. Earthquakes are frequent, but in general very slight. No direct connection between them and the volcanoes have ever been discovered. The water-spout often occurs along the coast, and frequently brings its wheeling inundations on the land. Thunder and lightning are so frequent as scarcely to attract attention; but few instances of damage or loss of lives are ever experienced.

The soil on the western coast of Sumatra is generally a stiff reddish clay, covered with a layer of black mould, of no considerable depth.

From this springs a strong and perpetual verdure of rank grass, brushwood, and other timber trees, so that a great proportion of the island, especially to the southward, is an impervious forest.

The earth in Sumatra is rich in minerals and other fossil productions, and the island has in all ages been famous for gold, which still continues to be procured in considerable quantities, and might be greatly increased if the gatherers had a competent knowledge of mineralogy. There are also mines of copper, iron, and tin. Sulphur is collected in large quantities among the numerous volcanoes. The natives extract saltpetre from the impregnated earth, chiefly found in extensive caves that have been long frequented by birds and bats, from whose dung the soil is formed, and acquires its nitrous properties. Coal, mostly washed down by the floods, is procured in many parts, particularly at Kuttaun, Ayer, Rami, and Bencooolen; but it is light, and not considered of a good quality. Mineral and hot springs, in taste resembling those of Harrowgate, are found in various districts. Earth-oil, used chiefly as a preservative against the ravages of the white ant, is collected at Ipu and elsewhere. There is scarcely any species of hard rock to be met with in the low parts of the island near the sea-shore, in the cliffs along which various petrifactions and sea-shells are to be discovered.

Copper is found on the hills of Mucky, near the sea, between Analaboo and Soosoo, to the north of the formerly English settlement at Tapanooly. The space affording the ore is considerable, extending above a degree in length, and farther east inland than has yet been ascertained. A considerable quantity of rich copper ore is found on the surface of the hills, to which the natives as yet limit their researches. On analyzation it has been found to contain a considerable proportion of gold.

Rice is the most important article of cultivation in Sumatra. In the husk it is called paddy [illegible] e Malays, from whose language the words seems to have found its way to the maritime parts of Hindostan. The kinds of rice are very numerous, but may be divided into two comprehensive classes: the upland or dry rice, and the lowland or marshy rice. The natives generally prefer the small-grained rice when it is at the same time white, and in some degree transparent. In some parts of the island vegetation is so strong that spots which have been perfectly cleared for cultivation will, upon being neglected for a single season, afford shelter to the beasts of the forest. The nominal time allowed from the sowing to the reaping of the crop of the upland rice is five lunar months and ten days; but from this it must necessarily vary with the circumstances of the season. The innumerable springs and rivulets with which the country abounds, renders unnecessary the laborious processes by which water is supplied to the continent of India, where the soil is sandy. Under very favourable circumstances the rate of produce is said to rise as high as 140; but the common produce is only thirty for one. The grains of paddy are rubbed out with the feet, which is a very painful and awkward mode of clearing the rice from the ear. The upland rice does not keep more than twelve months, and the lowland shows signs of decay in six months; but in the husk both will keep much longer. The northern part of the coast, under the government of Acheen, yield large quantities of rice.

The next important object is the coco-nut tree, which with the betel-nut and bamboo require little cultivation or attention. There is also the sago tree and a great variety of palms. The sugar-cane is very generally cultivated, but not in large quantities, and more frequently for the purpose of chewing the juicy reed than for the manufacture of sugar, which is usually imported from Java. Maize, chili, pepper, turmeric, ginger, coriander, and cummin-seed, are raised in the gardens of the natives. Hemp is ex-

tensively cultivated, not for the purpose of making ropes, but an intoxicating preparation called bang, which they smoke with their tobacco. Small plantations of the latter plant are every where met with.

It is impossible, within moderate bounds, to enumerate all the plants and shrubs this luxuriant island produces; the following are some of the most remarkable: a dwarf species of mulberry is planted for silkworms, which are reared, but not to any great extent, and the raw article produced is of an inferior quality. The castor-oil plant grows wild in abundance, especially near the sea-shore; and the elastic gum vine, or caoutchouc, is also found. From the indigo plant dye is extracted, and generally used in a liquid state. Brazil wood is common in Malay countries, as is also ubar, red wood, resembling logwood in its properties.

The mangosteen (*garcinia mangostana*), called by the natives mangista, exclusively belongs to the archipelago and ultra-Gangetic nations, and has by general consent obtained, in the opinion of Europeans, the pre-eminence among Indian fruits. Its characteristic quality is extreme delicacy of flavour, without being rich or luscious. Several species of the bread-fruit tree, the jack, mangoe, plantains, pine-apples (which the natives eat with salt), oranges, guavas, custard apples, papaws, tamarinds, cashew apples, pomegranates, and a multitude of other fruits without European names, are produced on this island. Grapes are raised by Europeans, but not cultivated by the natives; and there is a great profusion of flowers of a strong fragrance, and odoriferous shrubs.

The camphor-tree grows principally in the Batta country, on the northwest side of Sumatra, from the line to about three degrees north, and is not to be found south of the equator. It is also found in Borneo in nearly the same parallel of latitude: but trees of equal size are not known to exist in any other part of the world; the Sumatran camphor selling in China for twelve times the price of that from Japan. It is found in a concrete state, occupying cavities and fissures in the heart of the tree; but not above one tree in 300 contains this valuable substance, which is likely to rise to an enormous cost, as the tree is immediately cut down. The Puhn upas, or poison-tree, about which so many extraordinary tales have been told, is found in the woods. The poison is certainly deleterious, but not so potent as has been represented. The tree itself does no manner of harm to those around it; and persons may sit under its shade, or birds light on it, without sustaining the slightest injury.

The quadrupeds of this island are generally such as are found elsewhere in the East. The buffaloe supplies milk, butter, and beef, and is the only animal employed in domestic labour. Its motions while working are extremely slow, but steady; the work it performs, however, falls greatly short of what might have been expected from its size and apparent strength. They are not found in a wild state, being too much exposed to the attacks of the tiger; but only the weaker sorts and the females fall a prey to this savage, as the sturdy male buffaloe can withstand the first vigorous blow from the tiger's paw, on which the issue of the battle usually turns. The Sumatran tiger is of a very large size; some have been known to measure eighteen inches across the forehead. Their chief subsistence is probably the unfortunate monkeys, with which the woods abound.

The cow called sapi and jawi is obviously a stranger to the country, and does not appear to be yet naturalized. The breed of horses is small, well made, and hardy, and are brought down to the coast from the interior, nearly in a wild state. In the Batta country they are eaten, which is a custom also in Celebes. The sheep are a small breed, probably imported from Bengal; the other animals are the hog and the goat, both domestic and wild, the otter, the rat, cat, and

dog. Of the latter, those brought from Europe degenerate in the course of time to curs, with erect ears.

Elephants are numerous in the forests, but, excepting a few kept for state by the king of Acheen, they are not domesticated in any part of the country; rhinoceroses, single and double-horned, are also found. The horn is esteemed an antidote against poison by the natives, and on that account made into drinking cups. The hippopotamus is found in Sumatra, and also the bear, which is small and black, and climbs the coco-nut tree in order to devour the tender part or cabbage. There are many species of the deer kind, and the varieties of the monkey tribe are innumerable. Here are also sloths, squirrels, stinkards, civet-cats, tiger-cats, porcupines, hedge-hogs, pangolins, bats of all kinds, alligators, guanos, cameleons, flying lizards, tortoises, and turtle. The house lizards are in length from four inches down to one, and are the largest reptiles that can walk in an inverted position. One of these, large enough to devour a cockroach, runs along the ceiling of a room, and in that posture seizes its prey. The tail of these reptiles when broken off grows again.

In 1824 a colossal orang outang was killed on the north-west coast, of which Dr. Clarke Abel has given a detailed description in the Asiatic Researches. When first accidentally discovered in the woods by Captain Cornfoot and the crew of a country ship, he exhibited the appearance of a tall, manlike figure, covered with shining brown hair, walking erect, with a waddling gait, but sometimes accelerating his motion with his hands, and occasionally impelling himself forward with the bough of a tree. When attacked he displayed surprising strength, agility, and retention of life, and only died after receiving numerous deadly wounds from guns, spears, and missiles. His stature was at the lowest computation six feet, at the highest nearly eight, but was in fact seven, the body well proportioned, with a broad expanded chest and narrow waist. His chin was fringed with a beard, his arms long, even in proportion to his height, and in relation to the arms of men, but his legs in some respects much shorter. His organs of generation were not conspicuous, and seemed small in proportion to his size; his teeth and appearance indicated that he was young. When brought on board ship he was full a head taller than any man in the vessel, measuring seven feet in what might be called his ordinary standing posture, and eight feet when he was suspended to be skinned.

With animals of the frog kind the swamps every where teem, and their noise on the approach of rain is tremendous. They furnish nutriment to the snakes, which are of all sizes, and a large proportion of them harmless. These reptiles will swallow animals twice or thrice their own apparent circumference, having in their throats a compressive force that gradually reduces the prey to convenient dimensions. The shores supply cray-fish, prawns, shrimps, crabs, the kima or gigantic cockle, an inferior species of oyster, muscles, sea-eggs, &c. Among the fish are the dugong, a large animal of the mammalia order, with two strong pectoral fins, and is the only animal known to graze at the bottom of the sea, without legs, the grampus whale, viciliers, so named from the peculiarity of its dorsal fin resembling a sail, sharks, skates, the muræna, gymnotus, rock-cod, pomfret, mullet, the flying fish, and many others.

The variety of birds is considerable, and consists of the Sumatran pheasant, peacocks, eagles and vultures, kites and crows, jackdaws, king's-fishers, the buceros, storks, the common fowl, domestic and wild, the snipe, coot, plover, pigeons, quails, starlings, swallows, minas, parrots, parroquets, geese, ducks, teal, &c. The bird of paradise is not found here, and the cassowary is brought from Java. The loory is brought from the islands still further east.

The whole island swarms with in-

sects, among which are cock-roaches, crickets, bees, flies of all sorts, musquitoes, scorpions, centipedes, and water and land leeches. The fire-fly is larger than the common fly, and emits a light as if by respiration, which is so great that words on paper may be distinguished by holding one in the hand. Ants exist in immense numbers and varieties, which differ from each other in taste when put into the mouth. Some are hot and acrid, some bitter, and some sour. The large red ant bites severely, and usually leaves its head, as the bee its sting, in the wound. The Chinese dainty, named indiscriminately biche-de-mar, swallo, tripang, or sea-slug, is collected from the rocks, and dried in the sun for the China market.

Of the productions of Sumatra which are regarded as articles of commerce, the most abundant and formerly the most important, was pepper. Owing to the mode of cultivating the pepper vine, the ports and districts which one year are the most productive, are found in a short time afterwards to yield but an inconsiderable quantity. With respect to its qualities, the best is that of Malabar; the next is produced on the coasts of the gulf of Siam; then follow those of Calantan on the Malay peninsula, Borneo, the west coast of Sumatra, and last Rhio in the straits. The total produce of pepper has been roughly estimated at 45,000,000 of pounds. In 1822 pepper cargoes were obtained on the west coast of Sumatra by twenty-seven American ships, six country ships, four large French ships, besides 500 tons exported by the East-India Company. Nearly the whole of this trade is in the hands of foreigners, and finds its way to Europe and America, and a small proportion to China. At the above late Trumah was by far the most considerable pepper district on the west coast of Sumatra.

On the capture of the Moluccas in 1796 the nutmeg and clove plants were introduced at Bencoolen, and have since so rapidly increased, that in 1825 it was expected the produce of the first would amount to 89,000 pounds, and of the second to 34,000 pounds, besides 22,000 pounds of mace. The production of camphor has been already noticed, but is likely to decrease annually, as the natives cut down a great many trees at random before they find one that contains a sufficient quantity to repay their labour, although always assisted in their research by a professional conjuror. The whole quantity brought for sale rarely exceeds 6,650 pounds. The Japan camphor is of a very inferior quality.

Benzoin or benjamin is found almost exclusively in the Batta country. The best sort is sent to Europe, and the inferior sort is exported to Arabia, Persia, and some parts of Hindostan, where it is burned to perfume their houses and temples. From England it is re-exported to the Roman Catholic and Mahomedan countries to be used as incense. It is also employed in medicine as a styptic, and forms the basis of Turlington's drops. Cassia is also produced and exported, and rattans furnish yearly many cargoes. The annual and the shrub cotton are cultivated by the natives, but only in sufficient quantities to supply their own wants. The silk-cotton is a most beautiful raw material, but owing to the shortness and brittleness of the staple is unfit for the reel and loom, and is only applied to the degrading purpose of stuffing pillows and mattresses. The coffee tree is universally planted, but the berry is not of a good quality, probably owing to want of skill in the management. Among other articles of commerce are dammer, a species of dragon's-blood, a drug obtained from a large species of rattan; gambir, a juice extracted from the leaves of a plant of the same name, lignum aloes, and aguilla wood, highly prized in the East for its fragrant scent while burning.

The forests of Sumatra contain an inexhaustible store and endless variety of timber trees, many sorts of which are capable of being applied to ship-building, but the teak does not

appear to be indigenous to the island, although it flourishes both to the north and south, in Java and Pegu. The other remarkable trees are the poon, so named from a Malay word signifying wood in general, and is preferred for masts and spars; the camphor wood is used for carpenters' purposes; the iron wood, named from its hardness; the marban, used as beams for ships and houses; and the penaga, valuable as crooked timber for frames and knees. In addition to these are the ebony, the kayn gadis, a wood possessing the flavour and qualities of sassafras, the rangi, supposed to be the manchineel tree of the West-Indies, has a resemblance to mahogany. Of the various sorts of trees producing dammer, some are also valuable as timber, and here also is found the spreading banyan tree of Hindostan.

Gold is procured in the central parts of the island, and Menancabow has always been esteemed the richest in this metal. In the districts inland from Padang, which is the principal mart, it is collected from mines and from the channels of rivers; pieces of pure gold have also been occasionally found weighing nine ounces and upwards. Probably only one-half of all the gold procured reaches the hands of Europeans, yet it is asserted on good authority that from 10,000 to 12,000 ounces have been annually received at Padang alone; 2,000 at Nalaboo; 800 at Natal; and 600 at Mocomoco. The merchants carry the gold from the interior to the sea-coast, where they barter it for iron and iron working tools, opium, and the fine piece-goods of Bengal, Madras, and Europe. It used formerly to be purchased at the maritime ports at the rate of £3. 5s. per ounce, but afterwards rose much higher. In many parts of the country it is employed instead of coin, every man carrying a small pair of scales about with him. At Acheen small thin gold coins were formerly struck, but the coinage has been abandoned in modern times. Silver is not known as a production of Sumatra.

Tin is a very considerable article of commerce, but the mines are situated on the island of Banca. Iron ore is dug on this island, but not in large quantities, the consumption of the natives being supplied by English and Swedish bar-iron. Sulphur is procured from the volcanoes, and yellow arsenic is an article of traffic. In the Kuttaun country there are extensive caves, from the soil of which nitre is extracted, and from similar caverns the edible birds'-nests are procured for the China market, to which also the biche-de-mar or sea-slug is also sent. The other exports are bees'-wax, gum lac, and ivory. Elephants were formerly exported from Acheen to the Coromandel coast, in vessels built for the purpose, but this trade has long declined.

The beautiful gold and silver fillagree work of Sumatra has long been celebrated and admired, and is a matter of still greater curiosity from the extreme coarseness of the tools employed in the manufacture. From a piece of old iron hoop the wire-drawing instrument is made; a hammer-head stuck in a block serves for an anvil; a pair of compasses is seen composed of two old nails tied together at one end. The gold is fused in a piece of a rice pot; in general they use no bellows, but blow the fire with their mouths through a joint of bamboo. If the quantity of gold to be melted is considerable, three or four persons sit round the furnace, which is an old iron pot, and blow together.

But little skill is shown by the natives in forging iron. They make nails, but seldom use them in building. They are ignorant of the use of the saw, except where it has been introduced by Europeans. Painting and drawing they are strangers to; in carving they are fanciful, their designs grotesque, and always out of nature. Silk and cotton cloths manufactured by themselves are worn by the natives in all parts of the country. Their looms and weaving apparatus are extremely defective. They manufacture different kinds of earthen-

ware of a coarse fabric, and extract the coco-nut oil, which is in general use. Gunpowder is manufactured in various parts of the island, but less in the southern provinces than among the people of Menancabow, the Battas and the Acheenese, whose frequent wars require large supplies. The powder is very imperfectly granulated, being often hastily prepared in small quantities for immediate use. Salt is mostly supplied by cargoes imported, but they also manufacture it themselves by a very tedious process.

Among the modern political divisions of the island on the north-west coast, the principal are the empire of Menancabow and the Malays; in the next place the Acheenese; then the Battas, the Rejangs, and next to them the people of Lampong. The chain of islands which extends in a line nearly parallel to the western coast, at the distance of little more than a degree, are inhabited by a race or races of people apparently from the same original stock as those of the interior of Sumatra. Their genuineness of character has been preserved to a remarkable degree, whilst the islands on the east side are peopled with Malays. Until about 120 years ago the southern coast of Sumatra as far as the Urei river was dependent on the king of Bantam in Java, whose lieutenant came yearly to Bencoolen or Sillebar to collect pepper, and fill up the vacancies.

Nearly all the forms of government throughout Sumatra are a mixture of the feudal and patriarchal; but the political system of the people near the sea-coast is much influenced by the power of the Europeans, who exercise, in fact, the functions of sovereignty, and with great advantage to their subjects. The country over which the East-India Company's influence formerly extended were preserved in a state of peace, and had it not been for this coercion, every village would have been in a state of perpetual hostility with its neighbour. In 1819 the whole population of these districts was about 60,000 persons, thinly scattered over an ungrateful soil, along a line of almost inaccessible coast 400 miles in length, and remarkable for their lazy untractable habits. The form of government among the Rejangs near Bencoolen applies generally to the orang ulu, or inhabitants of the interior. Among the hills and woods property in land depends upon occupancy, unless where fruit trees have been planted; and as there is seldom any determined boundary between neighbouring villages, such marks are rarely disturbed.

In 1826 the north-east coast of Sumatra was nominally subject to five sovereigns, *viz.* the sultans of Palembang, Jambee, Indragiri, Siak, and Acheen, but it is in fact under an indefinite number of petty chiefs, whose respective domains are completely shut out and insulated from each other by forests, swamps, and jungles. The most populous and fertile is unquestionably Palembang. The islands of Rancao, Papan, Saratas, and Bancalis are partly inhabited by Malays, but chiefly by another race not yet converted to the Arabian faith.

The laws of the Sumatrans are properly a set of long-established customs, handed down to them from their ancestors, the authority for which is founded on usage and general consent. The law which renders all the members of a family reciprocally bound for each other's debts, forms a strong bond of connection among them. When a man dies his effects descend to his children in equal shares. The Sumatran code admits of pecuniary compensation for murder, on which account their laws take no cognizance of the distinction between a wilful murder and what we term manslaughter. Corporeal punishment of any kind is rare.

The place of the greatest solemnity for administering an oath is the burying ground of their ancestors, and they have certain relics or swearing apparatus, which they produce on important occasions. These generally

consist of an old broken creese, a fractured gun-barrel, some copper bullets, or any thing else to which chance or caprice has annexed the idea of extraordinary virtue. These they generally dip in water, which the person who swears drinks off, after pronouncing a form of words. At Manna, the relic formerly most venerated, was a gun-barrel, which, when produced to be sworn on, was carried to the spot wrapped up in silk, and under an umbrella. The Sumatran, impressed with the idea of invisible powers, but not of his own immortality, regards with awe the supposed instruments of their agency, and swears on creeses, bullets, and gun-barrels, weapons of personal destruction.

The right of slavery is established in this island, as it is universally throughout the East; but few instances occur of the country people actually having slaves, although they are common in the Malayan or seaport towns. At Bencoolen the East-India Company had a body of negro slaves, who were held in contempt and detestation by the natives, who considered them merely as humanized devils, and lost no opportunity of doing them an injury.

The inhabitants of Sumatra are rather below the middle size, their limbs for the most part slight, but well-shaped, and particularly small about the wrists and ancles. The women follow the preposterous custom of flattening the noses and compressing the skulls of children newly born, and also pull out the ears to make them stand at right angles with the head. The males destroy their beards and keep their chins remarkably smooth. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a tawny or copper colour. The females of the upper classes, not exposed to the rays of the sun, approach to a degree of fairness. Persons of superior rank encourage the growth of their hand-nails to an extraordinary length; the hands of the natives in general, and even of the half-breed, are always cold. The inland natives are superior in strength and size to the Malays of the coast, and possess also fairer complexions. Among the hills the inhabitants are subject to monstrous wens or goitres on the throat.

Both sexes have the extraordinary custom of filing and disfiguring their teeth, which are naturally white and beautiful, from the simplicity of their food. Many, particularly the women of the Lampong country, have their teeth rubbed down even with their gums; others have them formed into points like equilateral triangles, while some file off no more than the outer extremity, and then blacken them with the empyreumatic oil of the coco-nut shell. The great men set their teeth in gold, by casing with a plate of that metal under the row; which ornament, contrasted with the black dye, has by candle-light a very splendid effect. Sometimes it is indented to the shape of their teeth, but more usually it is quite plain, and it is not removed either to sleep or eat. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that found by navigators among the South-sea islands, and in Europe generally called Otaheitean cloth. It is still used among the Rejangs as their working dress, but the country people now in a great measure conform to the costume of the Malays.

The dusuns, or villages of the Sumatrans, for the inhabitants are so few that they are not entitled to the name of towns, are always situated on the banks of a river or lake, for the convenience of bathing and of transporting goods. Their buildings are of wood and bamboos, covered with palm leaves. The frames of the houses rest on stout wooden pillars about six or eight feet high, and are ascended to by a piece of strong bamboo cut into notches. Detached buildings in the country are raised ten or twelve feet from the ground, to be secure against tigers; the furniture is extremely simple, and neither knives or forks are required, as in eating they take up the rice and other victuals between their fingers

and thumb, throwing it into their mouth by a jerk of the latter.

Their art of medicine consists almost entirely in the application of simples. Every old man and woman is a physician, and their reward depends on their success: but they frequently manage to procure a small sum in advance under the pretext of purchasing charms. In fevers, during the paroxysm, they pour over the sufferer a quantity of very cold water, which afterwards brings on a copious perspiration. The venereal disease, although common in the Malay bazars, is little known in the interior.

On the sea-coast the Malay language is intermixed with the Batta and other original languages. The Malays fix the length of the year at 354 days, or twelve lunar months of twenty-nine and a half days each; the genuine Sumatrans count their years from the number of their crops of grain. They are fond of music, and have many instruments, mostly borrowed from the Chinese. The Malays of Sumatra use the Arabic character, and have incorporated a great many Arabic and also Portuguese words in their language. The other principal languages of Sumatra are the Batta, the Rejang, and the Lampong; the difference between them being chiefly marked by their being expressed in distinct written characters. They write on the inner bark of a tree and on bamboos, and form their lines from the left hand towards the right.

The native Sumatran of the interiors differs in some respects from the Malay of the coast, being mild, peaceable, and forbearing, unless roused by violent provocation. He is also temperate and sober, his diet being mostly vegetable, and his only beverage water. Their hospitality is great and their manners simple, and they are in general, except among the chiefs, devoid of the Malay cunning and chicane. On the other hand they are litigious, indolent, addicted to gaming, dishonest in their dealings with strangers, which they do not consider as any moral defect, regardless of truth, mean, servile; and although cleanly in their persons, filthy in their apparel, which they never wash. They are careless and improvident of the future, and make no advances in improving their condition. The Macassars and Buggesses who come annually from Celebes in their prows to trade, are looked up to by the Sumatrans and Malays as their superiors in manners. They also derive part of the respect paid to them from the richness of their cargoes, and the spirit with which they spend the produce in gaming, cock-fighting, and smoking opium.

Through every rank of the people there prevails a strong propensity to gaming, and to cock-fighting they are still more passionately addicted. The artificial spur used resembles the blade of a scymetar, and proves a much more destructive weapon than the European spur. The Malay breed of cocks are much esteemed by connoisseurs who have had an opportunity of trying them. In some places they match quails in the manner of cocks, which fight with great inveteracy, and endeavour to seize each other by the tongue.

The Sumatrans generally, but more particularly the indigenous Malays, are much addicted to the smoking of opium. The species of poppy that produces it (the *papaver somniferum*) not growing on the island, the narcotic is imported annually in large quantities from Bengal, in chests of 140 pounds each. It is mixed up with tobacco in the form of pills about the size of a pea, which quantity is consumed at one whiff. The smoke is never discharged by the mouth, but usually receives vent through the nostrils, and sometimes by adepts through the passage of the eyes and ears. Although so much opium is smoked in this island, the practice of running-a-muck (called mengamok by the natives) is by no means frequent. It is remarkable that at Batavia, where the criminals when taken alive were formerly broken alive on the wheel with every aggravation of cruelty, mucks often

occurred, while at Bencoolen, where they were executed in the easiest manner, the offence was always extremely rare. The Malays of the west coast have been so long accustomed to the mild government of the British that their manners and habits are considerably improved, while on the east coast they continue ferocious, sanguinary, and treacherous.

The original Sumatran vessel for boiling rice, and which is still used for that purpose, is a joint of green bamboo, By the time the rice is dressed the utensil is nearly destroyed by the fire, but it resists the flame so long as there is moisture within. Although the natives subsist in a great measure on vegetable food, they are not restrained by any prejudice of caste from other aliments, and accordingly at their feasts the flesh of the buffaloe, the goat, and fowls, are served up. Their dishes are almost all dressed as curries, and their flesh meat is cooked immediately after it is killed, while it is still warm. Sago, though common, is not in such general use as among the more eastern islands, where it is employed as a substitute for rice. When these articles of subsistence fail, the Sumatran finds others in the woods; hence famines are never attended with any very destructive consequences.

The natives of Sumatra are in general good speakers, the gift of oratory being natural to them. A Sumatran ever scrupulously abstains from pronouncing his own name, not from any superstitious motive, but merely as a punctilio in manners; and it occasions him infinite embarrassment when a stranger, unacquainted with their customs, requires it of him: on these occasions, as soon as he recovers from his confusion, he solicits the interposition of his neighbour. They can seldom give an accurate account of their age; but so far as can be inferred from observation, not a great proportion of the men attain the age of fifty, and sixty is accounted a long life. Where Mahomedanism prevails, boys are circumcised between the sixth and tenth years.

The ancient and genuine religion of the Rejangs (the Sumatran race with which we are best acquainted), if in fact they ever had any, is now scarcely to be traced, and what adds to the difficulty of procuring information is, that those who have not been initiated in the Mahomedan doctrines, regard those who have as persons advanced a step in knowledge beyond them. If by religion be meant a public or private form of worship of any kind, and if prayers, processions, meetings, offerings, images or priests, are all or any of them necessary to constitute it, the Rejangs are totally without religion, and cannot be with propriety even termed Pagans, if that phrase is understood to convey the idea of mistaken worship. They neither worship God, devil, nor idol. They are not, however, without superstitious beliefs of many kinds, and have a confused notion, although perhaps derived from their intercouse with other people, of some superior beings who have the power of rendering themselves visible and invisible at pleasure. These they call orang alus, fine or impalpable beings, and regard them as possessing the faculty of doing good and evil, but most inclined to the latter. They also call them malaikat and gin, which are the angels and evil spirits of the Arabians, and the idea was probably borrowed at the same time with the name. They have no word in their language to express the person of God except the Allah Taala of the Malays, corrupted by them to Ulahtalo, and where untinctured by Mahomedanism, the Sumatrans do not appear to have any notion of a future state.

The superstition that has the strongest influence on their minds, and which approaches the nearest to a species of religion, is that which leads them to venerate, almost to the point of worshipping, the tombs and remains of their deceased ancestors. They have an imperfect

notion of a metempsychosis, but not in any degree systematic, nor considered as an article of religious faith. They seem to think in general that tigers are actuated by the spirits of deceased men, and speak of them with a degree of awe. They relate also of a spot in the interior country where the tigers have a court, and maintain a regular form of government, and have their houses thatched with women's hair. The Sumatrans are also firmly persuaded that various particular persons are what they term betuah (sacred, impassive, invulnerable, and not liable to accident), and this quality extends to things inanimate, such as ships and boats.

No attempts have ever been made by missionaries or others (until very recently) to convert the inhabitants of this island to Christianity. Of the many thousands baptized in the Eastern isles by the celebrated Francis Xavier in the sixteenth century, not one of their descendants are now found to retain a ray of the light imparted to them. As it was novelty only, and not conviction, that induced the original converts to embrace a new faith, the impression lasted no longer than the sentiment which recommended it, and disappeared as rapidly as the missionary. Under the influence, however, of the Spanish government at Manilla, and of the Dutch at Batavia, there are many native Christians, educated as such from their childhood. The neglect of missions to Sumatra is one of the causes that the interior of the country is so little known to the civilized world.

Legal disputes are extremely common in Sumatra, and by far the greater number originate in the intricacy of the marriage contracts, the difficulties of which, both precedent and subsequent, are increased by the Sumatrans to a degree unknown in the most refined states. A wife is obtained by various modes of purchase, and when the full sum is paid the female becomes to all intents and purposes the slave of the husband, who may at any time sell her, making the first offer to her relations. The debts due for these sales constitute in fact the chief part of their riches, and a person is reckoned in good circumstances who has several due to him for his daughters, sisters, aunts, and great aunts. Prostitution is unknown in the interior, being confined to the more polite bazars of the sea-coast, where there is usually a concourse of sailors and other strangers. Adultery is punished by fine, but the crime is rare, and law-suits on the subject still less frequent. The husband, it is probable, either conceals his shame, or revenges it with his own hand. The customs of the Sumatrans permit their having as many wives as they can purchase, or afford to maintain, but it is only among the chiefs that instances occur of their having more than one.

From various sources of information sufficiently distinct from each other, the conclusion may be drawn that the Mahomedan religion had not made any considerable progress in the interior of Sumatra earlier than the fourteenth century. The province of Menancabow, although situated inland, is by far the most completely converted, the inhabitants being wholly Mahomedans. Perhaps it is less surprising that this one kingdom should have been completely converted, than that so many districts should remain to this day without any religion whatever. Every thing conspires to induce the Sumatran to embrace a system of belief and scheme of instruction, in which there is nothing repugnant to prejudices already imbibed; he relinquishes no favourite ancient worship to adopt a new, and is manifestly a gainer by the exchange.

By the recent treaty concluded between Great Britain and the Netherlands a most important alteration took place in the colonial relations of Sumatra, as by its conditions Bencoolen and all the other British possessions in that island were ceded to the King of the Netherlands in exchange for the Dutch settlements

on the continent of India, including the town and fortress of Malacca; the cessions to take place on the first of March 1825.—(*Marsden, Singapoor Chronicle, Dr. Abel, Anderson, Philips, Raffles, &c.*)

Sumba.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, fifty-three miles E. by N. from Ahmednugger; lat. 19° 13′ N., lon. 75° 53′ E.

Sumbhawa.—A large island in the Eastern seas, situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude, and separated from Lombhook by the straits of Allas. In length it may be estimated at 180 miles, by 40 the average breadth. Near the middle it is deeply indented by a large gulf, which almost divides the island into two portions. The principal towns are Bima and Sumbhawa. The other towns and districts are Dompo Tomboro, Sangur, and Pekat, all under different chiefs, who formerly acknowledged subordination to the Dutch. In A.D. 1713 the Dutch banished the king of Tomboro to the Cape of Good Hope.

This island produces considerable quantities of teak, the whole of the hills north-east from Bima being covered with that valuable timber, but the demand is so great that the trees are seldom allowed to grow more than a foot in diameter. In Dompo, which occupies the central portion of Sumbhawa, the trees being the property of the sovereign are better preserved and attain full size, but the difficulty of transporting them to the sea-coast is very great. Gold-dust is found in the same district, and pearls are fished for in a large bay to the westward of Bima, as also at Pekat. The breed of horses is good and resembles the Arab, but they seldom exceed thirteen hands in height; they are exported to Java and the neighbouring islands. The most remarkable phenomenon is the great volcano of Tomboro, which burst forth with incredible fury in 1815.

The Bima language extends over the eastern division of Sumbhawa, and the western portion of the island of Endé denominated Floris, by the early Portuguese navigators. The dialect of Sumbhawa, which prevails in the districts not subject to the sultan of Bima, is of a more mixed character than that of Bima. Neither the latter nor the Subhawa have any peculiar character, but use indifferently the Buggess or Malay character.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, Thorn, Raffles, Leyden, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Sumbhawa.—A town on the island of Sumbhawa, about 100 miles to the westward of Bima. This place stands on a large bay, open to the north and north-west, and a good harbour stretches inland between the reefs on the west side of the entrance. In A.D. 1814 this town was governed by a raja named Mahomed, subordinate to the authority of the sultan of Bima.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Sumbhulpoor (*Sambhalpura*).—A large district in the province of Gundwana, which, taken in its most extensive sense, is bounded on the north by Sirgoojah, Juspoor, and Chuta Nagpoor; east by Singhboom, Kunjeur, Ongole, Talcher, Autmallick, and Boad; south by Boad and Patna; and west by Patna and Choteesghur. Sumbhulpoor proper has to the north Ryepoor and Gangpoor; to the east Bombra and Kheracote; to the south Sonepoor and Patna; and to the east Boora Sumba, Phoolghur, and Saringhur. It is divided by the Mahanuddy into two unequal portions, the largest of which lies on the right bank of that river. Of the Khalsa Gurjats and dependent pergunnahs, Koolabeera, Burpulee, and Pudampoor among the first, and Sonepoor, Saringhur, Kheracote, and Ryeghur of the last, are the most important. Sumbhulpoor is remarkable as containing within it a very high and probably salubrious land called Myn Pat, the source of several rivers, of which the Hudsco is the most remarkable. The height of this tract in 1822 had not been ascertained. The valley of Sumbhulpoor, according to the late Dr. Voysey's observations, is only 410 feet above the level of the sea.

Sumbhulpoor consists almost equally of hill and dale, of jungle and cultivated land; but the country on the right bank of the Mahanuddy is the most fertile and thickly populated. The left bank yields abundance of rice, but for this grain there is little internal demand; neither is there any market for sugar, were its cultivation extended. Swamps and jeels are very abundant until the month of April, when they partially dry up and become covered with aquatic vegetation. It is remarkable that stagnant water is not by the natives of this province, or of India in general, deemed deleterious, they consequently never think of making drains; on the contrary they preserve it as long as possible for the purposes of ablution and irrigation. The pergunnahs east of the Mahanuddy produce considerable quantities of iron, but it is scarce and dear in the western portion of Sumbhulpoor. Cotton is plentiful and cheap, but the manufactures are dear and their quality coarse. Little skill is possessed by any class of artificers, including even the gold and diamond workers, two apparently difficult crafts, which yet frequently flourish among half savages. There is no reason to suppose that any commercial intercourse of the least importance ever existed with the neighbouring states, the whole collectively and individually appearing to have been torn to pieces by internal dissensions from the beginning of time. Diamonds have long been a staple article in Sumbhulpoor, being, as well as gold-dust, found in the alluvial soil of many streams and rivers, and more especially of the Mahanuddy, where further particulars are detailed. The great mass of population consists of Hindoos of the lowest castes, but the chiefs and landholders here, as elsewhere, claim the dignity of Rajpoots.

The territory of Sumbhulpoor was anciently comprehended in the Hindoo division of Gundwana, and composed part of the state of Gurrah, but during the reign of Aurengzebe it was formally annexed to the soubah of Allahabad, although its subjugation to the Mogul empire was little more than nominal. It afterwards, along with the rest of the province, fell under the sway of the Nagpoor Maharattas, who extorted occasional tribute, but interfered little with the management of the interior, which was kept in a state of constant agitation from the contests between the rajas and dewans, the first to regain, the last to keep possession of the power and property they had usurped. Money was extorted in all ways, and more especially by placing stones on the party, until he complied or expired. Among the sources of revenue was the sale of the widows of the Telee (oilmen) and other low castes, who on the decease of their husbands became the immediate property of the state.

In this condition of society there were no traces of municipal institutions or established rules for the redress of wrongs or punishment of crimes The rajas possessed despotic power, and were so reverenced that even the female apartments of the Gond and other inferior zemindars were thrown open when he visited them. The distribution of justice was limited to one object, the filling of the raja's or dewan's treasury; adultery, fornication, and sorcery had their respective prices, and suicide being remarkably prevalent among the females of Sumbhulpoor, their surviving relations were fined for allowing them to escape. The heads of villages were almost universally Brahmins, whose sacred character afforded essential protection to their peasantry; but when conquered by the Maharattas no regard was paid to the priests, who had stones placed on their breasts as readily as the lower castes. Each zemindar of the dependent pergunnahs had full power over the lives and property of their ryots.

In A.D. 1818 the sovereignty of Sumbhulpoor was transferred to the British government, and in November of the same year Raja Jeyte

Singh died, leaving one son, Maharaja Sahy, who had long been imprisoned at Nagpoor by the Maharattas. In 1817 the total revenue collected from Sumbhulpoor and its dependencies, Boad and Autmallick, was 1,01,157 Nagpoor rupees, above one-third less in value than sicca rupees. In 1821 the following rajaships and zemindars were dependent on Sumbhulpoor, and under the control of the governor-general's agent: 1. Gangpoor; 2. Sonepoor; 3. Bombra; 4. Bonej; 5. Autmalick; 6. Boad; 7. Saringpoor; 8. Patna; 9. Fooljah; 10. Suktee; 11. Burgur; 12. Boorasumba; 13. Burpalee; 14. Koolabera; 15. Rampoor; 16. Lera; 17. Rajpoor; 18. Chunderpoor; 19. Puddunpoor.—(*Roughsedge, Ferguson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Sumbhulpoor.—The capital of the preceding division of the Gundwana province, situated on the east side of the Mahanuddy river, 167 miles W.N.W from Cuttack; lat. 21° 8′ N., lon. 83° 37′ E. This place extends north and south about two miles, and contains some Hindoo pagodas and other solid buildings. The fort is of an oblong shape, stretching about half a mile along the banks of the river, and is surrounded by a wall of masonry, furnished with cannon of various calibre, but the whole incapable of making any protracted defence against artillery.

During the rains, the Mahanuddy (which opposite to the fort is a mile broad) runs with such rapidity that boats make the passage from Sumbhulpoor to Cuttack in two days. Most of the diamonds found in the channel of the river are obtained between the fort of Sumbhulpoor and the mouth of the Heeb, a large stream that flows into the Mahanuddy fourteen miles north of the fort. The surrounding territory is sufficiently productive of grain, cotton, and sugar, when under proper cultivation, but the climate is so pestiferous that it has proved the grave of almost every European officer who has been stationed here.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Sumbul (*Sâmbhala*).—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-one miles N.W. from Bareily; lat. 28° 37′ N., lon. 78° 29′ E.

Sumbul River.—See Chumbul River.

Somnauth.—See Puttan Somnauth.

Sumpter.—The capital of a petty chief in the province of Agra, under the British protection, situated fifty-eight miles S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 50′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E.

Sunda (*straits of*).—The arm of the sea which separates the large islands of Sumatra and Java is known to Europeans by this name; by the Malays it is termed Sunda Kalapa. The length of this channel, taken from the flat point to Vrakens or Hog's point, is about seventy miles, and on the opposite coast, from Java head to Bantam point, about ninety miles.

In the mouth of the straits lies Prince's island, by the situation of which two passages are formed, one between Prince's island and Java, made use of for the most part by ships which have to pass the straits during the south-east monsoon, in order that, sailing close in with the Java shore, they may soon get within anchoring depth, and escape all danger of being driven to sea by the currents, which at that time of the year set strongly out of the straits to the westward. The other passage, which is called by seamen the great channel, sometimes serves also as an entrance to the straits during the south-east monsoon; but it is with the greatest difficulty, and after continual struggling with the south-easterly wind and the current, that this can be effected.

In the narrowest point of the straits, and opposite to Hog's point on Sumatra, lies an island that on account of its situation has been called Thwart-the-way or Middle isle. A strong current runs through on both sides of the island during the whole year, setting with the prevail-

ing easterly or westerly winds either to the north-east or south-west. The chief islands immediately connected with the straits of Sunda are Prince's isle, Krakatan, Thwart-the-way, and Pulo Bahy. The others are very small and insignificant, mostly level, founded on beds of coral, and covered with trees; but the appellation of "Sunda islands" is also applied to the great chain stretching from Acheen-head in Sumatra to an indefinite extent eastward. In the channel between these there is a strong current setting to the northward, and in many parts there are no soundings with lines of fifty fathoms. Along the southern coasts of this chain, which are in general rocky and precipitous, the level of the sea is several feet higher than it is behind the islands, where considerable deposits of mud have at all times been forming.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, &c.*)

SUNDEELA.—A town in the province of Oude, thirty-one miles N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 80° 27′ E.

SUNDEEP (*soma dwipa, the moon isle*).—An island in the province of Bengal, situated at the mouth of the great Megna, formed by the united waters of the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, and consisting of alluvial deposits of long accumulation. In length it may be estimated at sixteen miles, by eight the average breadth. It is attached to the Chittagong district, and subordinate to its magistrate; but during the south-west monsoon is frequently cut off by storms from all communication with the continent. There is here a government establishment for the manufacture of salt under the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

Towards the conclusion of the sixteenth century a number of Portuguese settled on the coasts of Chittagong and Aracan, many of whom had entered into the service of the native princes, and obtained commands and grants of lands. These adventurers were extirpated or expelled from Aracan about A.D. 1607, the few who escaped taking refuge among the islands, where they continued the practice of piracy. Futteh Khan, the Mogul governor of Sundeep, having attempted to suppress them, was himself defeated and killed, and his whole fleet captured. On this event the pirates selected for their chief a common sailor named Sebastian Gonzales, and in 1609 gained possession of Sundeep, after murdering the garrison.

On this success Sebastian established an independent principality; his force amounting to 1,000 Portuguese, 2,000 native troops, 200 cavalry, and eighty vessels of different sizes, well supplied with cannon, with which equipment he soon subdued the adjacent island of Shahabazpoor and several others, which he added to his dominions. With a little common prudence and moderation his power might have attained a great elevation, and been permanent; but he soon disgusted his own subjects by the brutal tyranny of his conduct, and rendered the Moguls and Aracaners hostile by the perfidy of his policy. After many vicissitudes he was abandoned by a large proportion of his followers, and in 1616 was defeated by the raja of Aracan, who conquered Sundeep and the other islands, from whence, under the name of Mughs, the Aracaners infested and devastated the lower districts of Bengal, carrying off the inhabitants into slavery.

Sundeep continued in the possession of these barbarians until A.D. 1666, when Shaista Khan, the Mogul governor of Bengal, having fitted out a strong fleet at Dacca, despatched it down the Megna to attack Sundeep, where the Mughs had erected stockaded fortifications, which they defended with great resolution for a considerable time, but were at length all taken or destroyed. Since that period it remained attached to the Mogul government of Bengal, and devolved along with that province to the East-India Company.—(*Stewart, Crisp, &c.*)

SUNDERBUNDS *(sandari vana, a forest of soondry trees)*.—A woody tract of country on the sea-coast of Bengal, forming the delta of the Ganges, and extending along the bay of Bengal about 180 miles.

This dreary region is composed of a labyrinth of creeks and rivers, all of which are salt except those that communicate immediately with the principal arm of the Ganges, whose numerous natural canals are so disposed as to form a complete inland navigation. In tracing the sea-coast of this delta eight openings are found, each of which appears to be a principal mouth of the Ganges. As a strong presumptive proof of the wandering of this river from one side of the Sunderbunds to the other, it may be observed that there is no appearance of virgin earth between the Tiperah hills on the east, and the district of Burdwan on the west, nor below Dacca and Bauleah on the north. In all the sections of the numerous creeks and rivers nothing appears but sand and black mould in regular strata, until the clay is reached that forms the lower part of their beds; nor is there any substance so coarse as gravel either in the delta or nearer the sea than 400 miles (by the course of the Ganges) at Oudanulla, where a rocky point, part of the base of the neighbouring hills, projects into the river.

The navigation through the Sunderbunds is chiefly effected by means of the tides, there being two distinct passages, the one named the southern or Sunderbund passage, and the other the Balliaghaut passage. The first is the furthest about, and leads through the widest and deepest rivers, and opens into the Hooghly or Calcutta river, about sixty-five miles below the town. The Balliaghaut passage opens into a shallow lake on the east side of Calcutta. The navigation by these passages extends more than 200 miles, through a thick forest, divided into numberless islands by a multitude of channels, so various in point of width, that a vessel has at one time her masts entangled among branches of trees from each side, and at another sails on a broad expanded river, beautifully skirted with woods. The water is every where salt, and the whole wilderness abandoned to wild beasts, except here and there a solitary fakeer. In passing through this jungle the gloomy silence is sometimes relieved by the cooing of the dove, the call of the deer and peacock, the cackling of the hen, the crowing of the cock, the shrieking of parroquets, and the leaping and springing of monkeys from branch to branch. On each side alligators of an enormous size are seen asleep or basking in the sun, so entirely motionless, and so completely resembling a log of wood, that an inexperienced eye is always deceived, and takes them for what they seem, until roused by a shot, they scramble with much activity into the water. During the dry season the lower shores of these rivers are visited by salt-makers and wood-cutters, who then exercise their dreadful trade at the constant hazard of their lives; for royal tigers of the largest size not only appear on the margin, but frequently swim off to, and destroy the people in the boats anchored in the rivers. These passages are open throughout the year, and during the season, when the stream of the Ganges is low, a large proportion of the trade of Bengal passes either by Balliaghaut or Channel creek, but chiefly by the latter.

Many natives are annually carried off and eaten by tigers while cutting wood and making salt; yet several Mahomedan devotees, who pretend to possess charms against their malice, dwell in miserable huts by the river side, and are greatly revered by the passers by of both religions, who present offerings of food and cowries to propitiate their good-will. In the course of time these saints are themselves almost invariably snatched off, but the longer they remain the more they are respected, and a successor is soon found to fill up the vacancy. Besides these fakeers' huts many skeletons of

sheds are seen erected by the wood-cutters, under which they raise a small mound of earth like a grave, and repeat prayers before it preparatory to their commencing operations. Many of these wood-cutters are Hindoos who have assigned to certain gods and goddesses particular portions of the Sunderbunds, in like manner as the Mahomedans have to their respective peers or saints. The Hindoo labourers raise elevations of earth three or four inches high, and about three feet square, upon which they place balls of earth, and having painted them red, perform worship before them, offering rice, flowers, fruits, and Ganges water. The head boatman in the mean time fasts and goes to sleep, when some god or goddess informs him in a dream where wood may be cut without dread of tigers.

It is not practicable to bring into culture the salt marshy lands, for the most part overflowed by the tide; nor is it desirable while so much good land, in more healthy situations, remains unoccupied. The existence of this forest also on the margin of the bay has always been considered important in a military point of view, as presenting a strong natural barrier against maritime invasion along the whole southern frontier of the province. Great quantities of excellent salt are here manufactured, and esteemed of peculiar sanctity, as being extracted by filtration from the mud of the holy Ganges. The forest also supplies the capital with an inexhaustible store of wood for fuel, boat-building, and other purposes.

It has always been understood as a matter of notoriety that this vast tract of waste land is without an owner, except a comparatively small portion on the skirts of the forest claimed by the zemindars, all the remainder being unquestionably at the disposal of government. The well known fact that this labyrinth of wood and rivers is the property of no landholder, was the basis of a plan formerly acted on for bringing into cultivation lands situated in the northern quarter, and more recently for clearing the island of Sagor. Many plans have been undertaken to bring the waste lands of the Sunderbunds into cultivation, but up to 1812 they had all failed, chiefly owing to the difficulties and embarrassments arising from the claims of the zemindars on the lands granted to these new settlers, who naturally desired to have their grants as near as possible to the tracts already inhabited and cultivated, to which the adjacent zemindars always put forth claims of ownership, real or fictitious. To obviate a recurrence of these obstacles, a survey was made in 1812-13, which fixed the northern boundary at the Juboona creek, nearly on a line in an easterly direction with Hooghly, which exhibits the country from thence to Buddertullow in a complete state of cultivation. The result of this survey tended to impress a belief that considerable tracts of land had been brought under tillage and concealed from government. To prevent a repetition of similar fraudulent abstractions, a commissioner was appointed in 1814, with authority to examine the validity of all claims whatever, and also to assess the western portion of those lands.

Various derivations have been assigned to the name by which this tract is designated. By some it has been traced from the soondry tree (the *heritiera robusta*), and also from the word soonder, beautiful; and bon, a forest; by others the name is asserted to be Chunderbund, because it is still comprehended in the ancient zemindary of Chunderdeep. In 1784 the Sunderbunds, Cooch Bahar, and Rangamatty were estimated by Major Rennell to comprehend 37,549 square miles, then conjectured to be all nearly waste, but subsequent investigation has considerably curtailed the extent of these supposed wildernesses.—(*Colebrooke, Rennell, Ward, Rocke, J. Grant, &c.*)

SUNDLEPOOR.—A town in the province of Candeish, six miles from Hindia, which in 1820 belonged to

Sindia and contained 300 inhabitants; lat. 22° 32′ N., lon. 76° 59′ E.

Sundrabuni.—A small state lying within the bounds of Macassar, on the island of Celebes. The town stands a little inland on the banks of a river, whence its name originates.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Sungei Tenang. — A country in the interior of Sumatra, situated between the second and third degree of south latitude. The access to this territory is extremely difficult, on account of the different ranges of high mountains covered with forest trees and thick jungle that intervene. It is bounded on the north-west by Korinchi and Serampei; on the west and south-west by Anak Sungei, or Mocomoco, and Ypu district; on the south by Laboon; and on the east by Batang Asei and Pakalang Jambu.

The general produce of this country is maize, paddy, sweet potatoes, common potatoes, tobacco and sugar-cane; and the valleys on the whole are well cultivated. The inhabitants are a thick stout dark race of people, something resembling the Acheenese and generally addicted to the smoking of opium. They usually carry charms about their persons to preserve them from accident, some of which are printed at Batavia or Samarang, in the Dutch, Portuguese and French languages. In addition to the preservation clause, this document cautions purchasers against charms printed in London, as the English would endeavour to counterfeit them, and impose on the buyers, being all cheats.

Every village has a town-hall about 120 feet long, and broad in proportion, the wood-work of which is neatly carved. The dwelling-houses contain five, six, or seven families each, and the country is populous. The inhabitants of Sungei Tenang and Serampei are Mahomedans, and acknowledge themselves subject to Jambi.—(*Dare, &c.*)

Sungumnere.—A large division of the Aurungabad province, situated principally between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude. This is a hilly, but fertile and productive country, and contains the sources of the Godavery and many of its contributary streams. In 1803, it was supposed to yield the reigning Peshwa a revenue of ten lacks of rupees. The principal towns are Sungumnere, Nassuck, Trimbuck, and Beylahpoor. The first stands in lat. 19° 21′ N., lon. 74° 24′ E., seventy-three N.N.E. from Poona.

Sungur.—A town in Afghanistan, division of Upper Sinde, situated twenty-three miles to the west of the Indus; lat. 30° 50′ N., lon. 69° 58′ E.

Sunjeet.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, fifteen miles from Rampoora, which in 1820 belonged to Ghuffoor Khan, and contained about 500 houses; lat. 24° 18′ N., lon. 75° 23′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Sunkra (*Sancara*). — A subdivision of the Sinde principality, in the province of Mooltan, situated at the south-western extremity, where it is separated by the Goonee river, here named the Loonee (or saline) from the province of Cutch. It is thinly inhabited and presents little cultivation, the soil consisting either of a barren sand or salt morass. It does not contain any towns of note.

Surabaya.—A considerable town, the capital of a district, in Java, situated 540 miles east from Batavia; lat. 7°13′S., lon. 112° 49′ E. This place stands on a fine river, which permits vessels of considerable burthen to ascend to the town. Its mouth is defended by Fort Calamaes, a circular battery, mounting forty guns, placed on a rising spot on the east side of the river, which has a commanding sweep across the straits of Madura, where it is narrowest, being opposite to the south-west end of that island.

According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the division of Surabaya contained 154,512 inhabitants, of which number 2,047 were Chinese, within an area of 1,218 square miles. At that period the town of Surabhaya contained 24,574 persons.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

Suracarta (*Suryacarta*). — See Solo.

Surajegur (*Suryaghar*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, sixty-eight miles E.S.E. from Patna; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 86° 15′ E.

Surajepoor (*Suryapura*). — A town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles east from Korah; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E. This is a place of considerable length but small breadth, stretching along the side of the Ganges. A considerable proportion of the houses have two stories, built partly of brick and partly of mud, but it is thinly populated and also exhibits other indications of decline.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Surat (*Surashtra*). — A British district in the province of Gujerat, situated at the south-western extremity, between the twentieth and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. It consists principally of tracts of country acquired at different periods from the native powers, principally the Peshwa and Guicowar, and still much intermixed with the territories of the latter. It presents a much greater variety of surface than the neighbouring district of Broach. The eastern pergunnahs belong to the hilly and jungly country that reaches to the ghauts; those in the south partake of the same character; the rest is flat, and in many parts fertile; but a large proportion is still covered with babool bushes and wild date-trees. Nearly one-third of the district is waste. The eastern quarter is inhabited by Dhooblas, in many respects resembling Bheels, except that they are remarkable for their peaceable, inoffensive dispositions, a sufficient contrast. The other inhabitants, excluding those of the city, are Koombies and Coolies, Maustaun or Batailas (a caste of Brahmins), with some Parsees, Borahs and Rajpoots.

There are no Grassias or Mewassies in the district, and only one or two Bheel chiefs, nominally dependent on Rajpeepla. The Rajpoot chiefs (of Mandavie, Banda, and Dhurrumpoor) occupy portions of the jungle to the east of this zillah, but the nabob of Surat is the only dignitary possessing independent authority within its limits, and this only with reference to his own dependants. In 1821 he had 1,600 begas of land, about 300 ryots, 200 armed attendants, and 150 servants and slaves. The system of revenue collection in Surat is almost entirely ryotwar, but this improvement has been only recently introduced. In 1821 the cultivators appeared ill-clothed and lodged, and much depressed in spirit; indeed the pergunnah of Chowrassy, contiguous to the populous city of Surat, like the Sunderbunds in Bengal, might be quoted as the worst cultivated tract in the district, notwithstanding the great market in its immediate vicinity. In 1820-21 the jumma of the land revenue amounted to 15,05,273 rupees.

With respect to the internal police, until lately the Surat district was so much intersected by the territories of other states and petty jaghiredars that the jurisdiction of the magistrate was much interrupted, many previous ceremonies and negociations being necessary before he could arrest a thief or recover stolen property. Formerly also a class of gang robbers, enlisted by Grassias having claims on the revenue of certain lands, infested the district. These ruffians were generally headed by some desperate Jemadar, renowned for his cruelties and exactions, who while collecting dues for his master, extorted double the amount for himself. These and other grievances attending an unsettled government have since been remedied, but still the district does not exhibit that appearance of prosperity that from its long tranquillity might have been expected. Marine and river piracy is still carried on to a great extent in the Surat jurisdiction, owing to the easy communication held by vessels at the mouth of that river with banks, one of which is only partially subject to the British laws. In consequence of this practice, al-

though hardly any cotton is grown to the south of Surat, every village between that city and Bulsaur is commonly full of that commodity, thrown over board by the native captains and crews, under the slightest plea of bad weather, and picked up by their relations and partners from the neighbouring villages along the shore; who frequently also by a concerted plan, come off and plunder the vessel entirely. The booty is subsequently distributed in regular shares among the different villages, which belong principally to Bulloo Meah of Sacheen, whose income would be much deteriorated were these practices suppressed.—(*Elphinstone, Bourchier, Prendergast, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Surat.—A large and populous town, situated on the south bank of the Tuptee river, about twenty miles above its junction with the sea, and the modern capital of the Gujerat province; lat. 21° 11′ N., lon. 73° 7′ E. This is a large and ugly city, with narrow winding streets, high houses of timber-frames filled up with bricks, the upper stories projecting over each other. The wall is entire, and in good repair, with semi-circular bastions. Its destruction has been frequently contemplated, to throw the town open; but the feelings of security which the natives derive from such a rampart, and the facilities it affords for collecting the town duties, have hitherto preponderated in favour of its preservation. The circuit of Surat is about six miles in a semicircle, of which the Tuptee is the chord. Near the centre of this chord, and washed by the river, stands a small castle, with round bastions, glacis, and covered way, in which a few sepoys and European artillery are stationed, and which is distinguished by the singularity of two flagstaves, on one of which a union-jack is displayed, on the other a plain red flag, the ancient ensign of the Delhi emperors. In the neighbourhood of this fort are most of the European houses, of a good size, and surrounded by extensive compounds, but not well contrived to exclude the heat. Without the walls is a French factory, containing some handsome and convenient apartments, but now (1824) quite deserted by their proper owners, and occupied by different English officers. It had been restored to the French after the conclusion of the peace in 1815, and a governor and several functionaries came to take possession; but the diseases of the climate soon made such a havock among them, that the few survivors were glad to return to the isle of Bourbon, whence no substitutes arrived to fill up the vacancy. At this station there is a neat and convenient church, and a very picturesque and extensive burial-ground, full of large but ruinous tombs of the former servants of the East-India Company, some of them from 120 to 180 years old.

The most remarkable institution in Surat is the Banyan hospital, of which, however, we have no description more recent than 1780. It then consisted of a large piece of ground enclosed by high walls, and subdivided into several courts or wards for the accommodation of animals. In sickness they were attended with the greatest care, and here found what many a human being wanted and wants, a peaceful asylum for the infirmities of old age. When an animal broke a limb or was otherwise disabled, his owner brought him to this hospital, where he was received without regard to the caste or nation of his master. In 1772 this hospital contained horses, mules, oxen, sheep, goats, monkies, poultry, pigeons, and a variety of birds; also an aged tortoise, which was known to have been there seventy-five years. The most extraordinary ward was that appropriated for rats, mice, bugs, and other noxious vermin, for whom suitable food was provided.

This is one of the most ancient cities of Hindostan, being mentioned in the Ramayuna, a Sanscrit poem of great antiquity. After the discovery of the passage to the East by the Cape of Good Hope, it was much

frequented by vessels belonging to European nations, who exported from hence pearls, diamonds, ambergris, civet, musk, gold, silks and cottons of every description, spices, fragrant woods, indigo, saltpetre, and other objects of Indian traffic. From hence also a great number of pilgrims embarked for Arabia, on which account Surat was considered by the Mahomedans of Hindostan as one of the gates of Mecca. In A.D. 1612 Captain Best received permission to settle an English factory at Surat, where he left ten persons, with a stock of £4,000, to purchase goods. The Dutch did not visit Surat until 1617. The French carried on a considerable but losing trade with Surat during the early years of the eighteenth century; and having contracted debts to the natives, deserted it altogether. Some time afterwards in 1714 a company was formed at St. Malocs, which despatched ships to the East-Indies, but these were seized and sequestered at Surat, to liquidate the debts of the former adventurers, with which the St. Maloes association had not the least concern.

In latter times the trade of Surat has much declined, and at present consists almost wholly of cotton wool, which is exported in large boats to Bombay, and all the manufactured goods are undersold by the British except kincobs and shawls, for which there is little demand. A great deterioration has consequently taken place in the circumstances of the native merchants, many of whom have been obliged to sell their personal goods and chattels to procure immediate subsistence. In 1824 the only prosperous persons were the Borahs and Parsees, the last of whom are the proprietors of half the houses, and seem to thrive where nobody else (the Borahs always excepted) can glean a scanty maintenance.

In January 1664 the Maharatta army under Sevajee made a sudden attack on this city, when the Mogul governor shut himself up in the castle, and the inhabitants fled to the adjacent country. In this emergency Sir George Oxenden, the chief, and the rest of the Company's servants shut themselves up in the factory with the Company's property, valued at £80,000, and having fortified it as well as the shortness of the time would permit, called in the ships' crews to assist in the defence. When attacked they made so brave and vigorous a resistance, that they not only preserved the factory but the greatest part of the town from destruction; for which, after the retreat of the enemy, they were thanked by the Mogul commander. Surat was attacked and partially pillaged by the Maharattas in 1670, and afterwards in 1702, and again in 1707; but having no cannon, and very few fire-arms, they were unable to make any progress.

Moyen ud Deen, the ancestor of the present nabob of Surat, was an adventurer who in 1748 possessed himself of Surat castle. His successors were, in 1763, Cuttub ud Deen; in 1792, Nizam ud Deen; and in 1800, Nassir ud Deen, all invested by the East-India Company. The existing system of internal government having been found inadequate to the protection of the persons and property of the inhabitants, a treaty was concluded in 1800 with Nassir ud Deen, the new nabob, by which he agreed that the management of the city and district of Surat, and the administration of civil and criminal justice, should be exclusively vested in the British government. The latter engaged to pay to the nabob one-fifth of the surplus revenue, after deducting all charges; the residue to be at the disposal of the British government. By a subsequent treaty in 1803 the Maharattas were compelled to abandon all their vexatious claims on Surat, which has ever since remained under the Bombay presidency, and been governed by the British regulations modified by peculiar local customs and circumstances. Nassir ud Deen, the nabob of Surat, died in 1821, aged seventy-one years, leaving a son named Ufzul ud Deen.

With respect to the population of

Surat a considerable uncertainty still remains. In 1798 Mr. Seton estimated that the population of this city was 800,000 persons; in 1808 Mr. Crow, the judge and magistrate, found only 28,871 houses in the town and suburbs; and Mr. Romer, in 1818, reckoned the number of houses at 31,439; which last number, allowing five individuals to a house, would give a total population of only 157,195 persons. It is, however, the prevailing opinion that the population of Surat has much decreased within the last half century. The English society is uncommonly numerous here, as Surat is the head-quarters not only of a considerable military force, but of a collector, a board of customs, a circuit, and of a sudder adawlut for the whole presidency of Bombay, which, for the greater convenience of the people, on account of its central position, Mr. Elphinstone transferred hither. Travelling distance from Bombay, 177 miles, from Poona, 243; from Oojein, 309; from Delhi, 758; and from Calcutta by Nagpoor, 1238 miles.—(*Bishop Heber, Bourchier, Prendergast, Parliamentary Reports, Elphinstone, Bruce, &c.*)

SURALIYA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Dewass, which in 1820 contained about 300 houses, and belonged to the raja of Dewass.

SURIAGO.—A small fort and town belonging to the Spaniards, situated at the northern extremity of Magindanao, on the banks of a river flowing from an inland lake. The roadstead here is good during both monsoons: but in the offing, where the passage is narrow, the tides are said to run with great strength.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

SURKHANDA.—A peak, part of the ridge in Northern Hindostan that separates the Jumna and Ganges, and overlooks the Deyrah Doon: lat. 30° 24′ N., lon. 78° 16′ E.

SURMALEE STOCKADE.—A stockade in Northern Hindostan, dominions of Nepaul, four miles east of the Goggra river; lat. 29° 22′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

SUROUT.—A large village in the province of Agra, surrounded by a stone wall, and held in jaghire from the Jeypoor raja by a relation of the family; lat. 26° 51′ N., lon. 77° E.

SURROOL.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Moorshedabad, fifty-three miles S.W. by S. from Moorshedabad; lat. 23° 39′ N., lon. 87° 42′ E. This is a place of some traffic, and the head-quarters of the commercial resident for the Soonamookee division.

SURSEE.—A small town in the province of Malwa, near to Kairwass, which in 1820 contained 200 houses, and belonged to Guffoor Khan.

SUSOHUNAN.—See SOLO or SURYACARTA in JAVA.

SUSUNG.—A small subdivision of the Silhet district, in the province of Bengal, where duties are levied on the cotton brought for sale by the Garrows. In 1815 (including those of Sherpoor) they were farmed for 4,625 rupees.—(*Sisson, &c.*)

SUTALURY.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Backergunge, 168 miles east from Calcutta; lat. 22° 38′ N., lon. 90° 10′ E.

SUTCHANA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, belonging to the jam of Noanagur, and situated to the east of that city. An extensive fishery is carried on along this part of the gulf of Cutch, from whence the fish, when dried, are transported to the interior. The pearl-oyster is also found here, and is made a source of revenue.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

SUTULEJE RIVER (*Satadru, with a hundred channels or bellies*).—The fifth river of the Punjab, and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians. Although not yet established by ocular inspection, there is now little doubt that the Sutuleje issues from lake Rawan's

Hrad and lake Manasarovara, which probably communicate at certain seasons. According to Captain Hearsay's map the source is about lat. 31° 40′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E., from whence to Roper in lat. 30° 58′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E., a distance of above 400 miles, until 1818 little was known, and the existence of a western branch of this great river, (the Spiti or Li, which rises in Lahdack) was not even suspected.

The upper part of its course from Rawan's Hrad to the town of Shipké lies within the Chinese territories. At Shipké lat. 31° 49′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E., the height of the bed of the Sutuleje is 9,267 feet above the level of the sea; its breadth sixty-seven feet, and its depth six feet. Below Shipké it is obstructed by rocks, and at a short distance above Dabling there is a small fall. The declension from Pooree to Wongtoo is 1,337 feet, or fifty-one feet per mile, thence to Koteghur fifty-nine feet per mile, and to Soonee twenty feet per mile. The district of Kunawur is the middle valley of the Sutuleje; the lower valley begins where the river bursts from the Himalaya. The mean height of the Sutuleje near its confluence with the Baspa is 6,300 feet. In the lower valley the banks of the Sutuleje at an elevation of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea consist of limestone. At Jaurè, on the north bank, springs rising to the temperature of 130° Fahrenheit are found, issuing only two or three feet from the channel of the river, the waters of which have a strong sulphurous smell. The fall of the Sutuleje from Shipké to Rampoor is, with little exception, nearly uniform, and about sixty feet in the mile; from thence to Soonee the average fall is twenty-four feet, and from Soonee to Roper, where it enters the plain, eleven feet per mile. If twenty-four feet fall per mile be allowed in the upper part of its course above Shipké, the elevation of its source at or near Rawan's Hrad will be between 14,000 and 15,000 feet above the level of the sea.

Much knowledge has been gained within the last ten years of the course of this stream, which may now be considered one of the largest and most important rivers of India. The source of the western or Spiti branch (which at their junction is as large as the eastern branch) rising somewhere in Lahdack, still remains unknown, but the length of the course of the eastern, from Rawan's Hrad to its confluence with the Beyah, may be estimated at 500 miles; thence to its junction with the Indus 400 miles; to which 500 more being added for its progress to the ocean, will give a total journey of 1,400 miles. This hundred-bellied stream by the lower mountaineers is called Satadru; by the natives of Kunawur (Khunawer) Zagti; and by the Tartars, Lamjing Kanpa; Kanpa signifying a river in general, as does also Sanpoo and Maksang.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, Messrs. Gerards, Jas. Fraser Moorcroft, Colebrooke, Rennell, &c.*)

SUTULEJE AND JUMNA PROVINCE.—A large tract of country in Northern Hindostan, which until the Gorkha war of 1815 remained so wholly unexplored, that even the names of the petty states within its limits was a matter of conjecture. To the north it is separated from what has been called Little Tibet, by the Himalaya mountains; on the south it adjoins the province of Delhi; to the east it is bounded in its whole extent by the course of the river Jumna; and on the west by that of the Sutuleje, so that its limits have the advantage of being singularly well defined. In length it may be estimated at ninety miles, by sixty miles the average breadth, equal to an area of 5,400 square miles. The political divisions of this territory before its conquest by the Gorkhas, and to which indeed, by the restoration of the native chiefs it has nearly returned were the following, viz. 1st. Four considerable principalities Cahlore, Hindoor, Sirmore, and Bussaher. 2dly. Twelve petty states called the Barra Thakooria or twelve lordships, viz. Keon-

thul, Bughaut, Baghul, Kothaur, Koomharsain, Bhujee, Mahlogh, Dhamee, Keearee, Khoonkhaur, Mungul, and Kotee. 3rdly. Fourteen petty chiefships, *viz.* Joobul, Koteghur, Bulsun, Kunartoo, Kurrungtoo, Detailoo, Theoka, Poondur, Keoond, Ootraj, Suranee, Sangree, Burrowlee, and Durkotee.

It is a remarkable circumstance in the history of these countries, that while the common people, as far as their histories and traditions extend, appear to have been all aboriginal, their rulers are, with few exceptions, of foreign extraction, being sprung from ancestors who had emigrated from the eastward and southward, (mostly in performance of pilgrimage to Jowala Mookhee, a place of great sanctity in the Kangra principality) and had found the natives of the hills in such a state of ignorance and barbarism as had at once invited and facilitated their subjugation. At an early period (about A.D. 816) this country appears to have possessed as many independent states as it contained villages; but subsequently several more powerful chiefships were founded by emigrants from the south. The intervening time until the Gorkha invasion in 1803, was occupied by intestine warfare, which exasperated and disunited the communities and paved the way for a foreign yoke. Occasionally the name of the Delhi emperor was used to extort money; but Adeina Beg Khan, the soubahdar of Lahore, appears to have been the only imperial commander who ever entered the hills between the Sutuleje and Jumna

In 1803 the government of Nepaul detached Ummer Singh Thappa to subdue the more western states of Northern Hindostan, which undertaking he completed between that date and 1813, the whole history of its process exhibiting a most singular want, on the part of the inhabitants, of energy, courage, or activity, and of every other valuable quality usually attributed to a highland people. In this prostrate condition it remained until 1814, when the first war between the British nation and the Gorkhas commenced, but lingered on for some time with but indifferent success; at length, in 1815, Sir David Ochterlony having assumed the chief command, and penetrated the hills, the Gorkhas were dislodged from the fortified heights of Malown, and soon after Ummer Singh, their commander, was forced to capitulate both for himself and son, then blockaded at Jytuk. The result of these decisive measures, combined with the prosperous operations in Kumaon, was the evacuation by the Gorkhas of the entire territory west of the Kali branch of the Goggra.

The British government having in this manner, after no moderate expenditure of blood and treasure, wrested this long agitated country from the Gorkhas, proceeded to lay down a basis for its settlement, founded on the restoration of the exiled or subdued chiefs, in all cases in which their failure to perform the conditions of the proclamation published at the commencement of the war, did not justify a departure from that principle. The general restoration of the princes, however, was judged the most advisable settlement, and with certain exceptions it was carried into execution. These exceptions were the retention of Malown, Subhatoo, and one or two other military posts, the exclusion of the thakoors of Keonthul and Bughat, and of Kurrum Perkhaush the exiled raja of Sirmore, on account of the incurable depravity of his character, in favour of his son; and finally, the separation from that principality of the pergunnahs of Jounsar and Bhawer, lying on the opposite side of the river Tonse.

It became expedient also to exercise a more energetic and direct system of control over the hill states, to prevent the revival of ancient feuds and animosities, which could only be effected by the coercion of a vigorous control, it being impossible to avoid the inconvenience of arbitrating their disputes without the certainty of incurring evils of a more serious de-

scription. It was meant, however, that this control should be political only, and not extend to an interference with the internal management of their affairs. With respect to the *statu quo* of their territories, the period of the Gorkha invasion in 1803 was selected, as in all respects the most convenient, from being of so modern a date as to render evidence easily attainable, while the public declarations of the British government precluded their taking cognizance of claims originating in transactions of an antecedent date. The following are the only lands and military posts occupied by the British on the hills, *viz.* Jounsar, Bhawer, Subhatoo fort and pergunnah, Raeenghur fort and pergunnah, Sindook, and Poondur. The objection to the retaining of territory in the hills were founded on the unprofitable nature of the possessions, and the difficulty of governing such remote and insulated tracts, more especially with regard to the administration of justice; for under the local and peculiar circumstances of the countries in question, it appeared equally inexpedient and impracticable to introduce the general code of Bengal judicial regulations.

Since the conquest of this tract the attention of the British government has been particularly directed to the abolition of the long established custom of compelling the peasantry to act as hill porters; for in this mountainous country the only mode of carriage is on men's shoulders, and it has always been the practice to press men for this purpose. During the war the urgency of affairs admitted of no alternative; but in 1816 a great reduction of the number was effected, and further improvements in the system have since taken place, more especially by securing to them their hire. But in whatever mode their services are required, until some moral change takes place compulsory it must ever be, as the slothful nature of this people will always lead them to prefer indolence and poverty at home to any laborious exertion abroad. In 1815 the total revenues of the countries situated between the Sutuleje and Tonse were estimated at 4,35,769 rupees. The most remarkable creature in the northern tracts is the pheir, an animal of the deer kind, which subsists on the short herbage near the edges of the snow. Its flesh is so coarse, and has so unpleasant a musky smell that the Hindostanies will not touch it, although the Gorkha sepoys and mountaineers eat it with great avidity. It is remarkable that these people will not touch mutton.

On the first of April 1827 Lord Amherst held a durbar at the hill station of Subathoo, which was attended by the ranas of Keonthul, Baghul, Baghat, Kothaur, Koomharsein, Bhujee, Malogh, Damee, Koonyar, Balma, Beja, Ootraje, and Kothtaee, who brought nuzzers of birds, hill-ponies, and other articles, the peculiar productions of their respective territories, and received in return khelauts, suited to their rank and condition.—(*Lieut. Ross, Sir David Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, Capt Hodgson, &c.*)

SWALLY (*Sivalaya the abode of Siva*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, and harbour of the Surat shipping, situated at the mouth of the Tuptee river, twenty miles west from that city; lat 21° 6′ N., lon. 72° 50′ E.

SYADREE MOUNTAINS.—A range of mountains in the province of Aurungabad, among the Western Ghauts, the general elevation of which approaches 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, but particular ones rise much higher. Those on which the hill-forts of Logur, Issanoor, Koonree, and Singhur stand (or rather stood), attain the height of 4,000 feet.—(*Capt. H. D. Robertson, &c.*)

SYDAH.—A large town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar, and was nearly in ruins.

SYLAM.—A fortified town in the Gujerat peninsula, possessed by a Rajpoot chief, formerly tributary to

the Guicowar; lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 71° 37′ E. It occupies more ground than Wankaneer, but is not so strong a place.

Sylaur River.—See Tinnevelly District.

Syriam.—A town in the Burmese empire and province of Pegu, a few miles S.E. of Rangoon; lat. 16° 49′ N., lon. 93° 17′ E. In the year 1744 the British factory at this place was destroyed by the contending parties, during the wars of the Birmans and Peguers, which were carried on with the most savage ferocity.

T.

Tablas Isle.—One of the Philippines, situated due south of Luzon, and of a very irregular shape. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by three the average breadth.

Taclagur (or *Taclacote*).—A town in Northern Hindostan, situated on the west side of the Goggra river (here named the Karanali); lat. 30° 24′ N., lon. 81° 5′ E., twenty-five miles south from Lake Manasarovara. Jemlah to the north is bounded by a ridge of snowy mountains, thence named Hima, by which it is separated from the country of the Taklakhar Bhooteas, now subject to China. Taclagur is a dependency on Gurdon, a Chinese station, which although incorporated with that empire, geographically belongs to Hindostan, being decidedly to the south of the highest ridge of the Himalaya. It is a permanent mart for wax and borax, and a fair is also held here during the months of October and November, when the vicinity exhibits a great display of tents. The principal articles brought from Tartary are wool, woollen cloths, and gold, to which tea may be added. The grain raised in this vicinity, named awajou, is carried north to the neighbourhood of Lake Rawan's Hrad, where it is given to the horses during the rigorous season; and as it thrives in a rigorous climate, it might perhaps be with advantage naturalized in Britain. At one day's journey north of Taclacote the soil is cultivated by a very scanty population, yet the produce does not equal the consumption. Beyond this limit tribes of migratory horsemen are found, named Dopka, who are dwellers in tents. Taclacote, by an approximated estimate, is about 14,500 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Webb, Moorcroft, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Tagal.—A town and district in the island of Java, the first eighty-five miles west from Samarang; lat. 6° 56′ S., lon. 109° 12′ E. The country about this place is remarkably productive; and further east it is the rice granary, not only for Batavia, but for general exportation. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the district of Tagal contained 178,415 inhabitants, of which number 2,004 were Chinese; area of the surface. 1,297 square miles. The town is pleasingly situated on a broad river, has a church and small fort, and presents a neat appearance. At this place, and most others further east, a mounted police is maintained by the native superintendents, which in the larger towns is under the control of European officers.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

Tacolanda.—A small island about twenty miles in circumference, lying off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes; lat. 2° 10′ N., lon. 125° 5′ E. This island is populous, and plentifully supplied with provisions, three chopping-knives being the price of a bullock, and one, of a thousand coco-nuts. The Dutch formerly kept a few soldiers here, and also a schoolmaster, to convert the inhabitants, who are described as pork-eating pagans, a grand distinction among the Malay islands.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Tahej.—This was the capital of Cutch when Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, but no vestiges now remain. From what he says it was probably

situated somewhere to the north-west of Anjar.

TAHMOOR.—A town in the province of Oude, sixty miles N. by E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 81° 4′ E.

TAHRAH.—A town and fortress in the province of Cutch, situated about thirty miles S.E. from Luckput Bunder, on the road from that place to Mandavie. The fort is an irregular building, defended by round towers, flanked by a large tank on each side; the town on the south and the suburbs on the west. The inhabitants are numerous, and principally Hindoos.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

TAIMBOORNY.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, ninety-seven miles E.S.E. from Poona; lat. 18° N., lon. 75° 23′ E.

TAIVERAM.—A town in the Madura and Dindigul district, 117 miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 54′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

TAJPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, eight miles from Oojein, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia and contained about 500 houses.

TALA.—A small town in the province of Arracan thirty-seven miles S.E. from the capital of the same name.

TALAK.—A village in Arracan, situated on the right bank of a stream of clear water, running over a pebbly bottom, and coming from the hills to the north-east, winding round them in a semicircular direction; lat. 20° 20′ N., lon. 93° 33′ E.; twenty-eight miles S. by E from the town of Arracan. This village in 1827 consisted of about 100 huts, chiefly occupied by Burmese, who had established a mart and bazar, to which the people from the eastern side of the Arracan hills had begun to resort, bringing down cotton thread, khut, bees'-wax, elephants'-teeth, and Burmese silk garments, which they barter for betel-nut, tobacco, gnapee, balachang, and British piece-goods. To the north-east of this village and about four miles from the bank of the river, extends a chain of high mountains, the most conspicuous of which is the Phoongee Dong, over which leads the pass by which the Burmese originally invaded Arracan, and through which a great part of their army retreated in 1825. The height of the usual halting place has been estimated at 1,700 feet.

Above Talak is Aeng, but the stream is so shallow below that place for about five miles, that boats cannot reach it except at spring tides. In 1827 several large Mugh boats were found at Aeng, which had come from Ramree with cargoes of betel-nut and piece-goods, whilst from Sillahmew on the Irawady a trader with fifty bullocks had just arrived by land. Wild elephants are so numerous in this vicinity as to interrupt the cultivation, which is in consequence mostly confined to the banks of the Talak river, where tobacco and cotton thrive, ginger is abundant, and pepper of a good quality grows wild.

The face of the country in this portion of Arracan may be described as regularly irregular, consisting of one winding rivulet or creek leading to another, in interminable succession, the banks of which are covered with close jungle of the mangrove, soondry, jarool, and gurjun, intermixed with canes and bamboos. The rivers run between extensive chains of low hills, backed by loftier mountains, over which bamboo jungle is universally spread. The redundant vegetation renders the country generally unhealthy, but both Talak and Aeng standing on elevated positions, on the banks of clear running streams admit of being kept perfectly dry, even during the monsoon, which must no doubt render them comparatively salubrious.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

TALCHER.—A hill estate in the province of Cuttack, on which anthracite or blind-coal was discovered in 1827.

Taleroo.—A miserable village in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Boondee, about nine miles S.S.E. from the city of Boondee. It is remarkable for a bridge or causeway of stone, that here traverses the rocky bed of the Taleroo nullah. The most direct road from Kotah to Boondee passes through this place.

Talgong.—A town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 55′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E.

Tall.—A town in the province of Malwa, belonging to Ghuffoor Khan, which in 1820 contained 641 houses; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 75° 26′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah of forty-two villages, which then yielded a revenue of 5,328 rupees. The surrounding country is flourishing, cultivation being much encouraged by the proprietor, himself an old depredator.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Tallain.—A small town in the province of Malwa, eleven miles travelling distance from Shujawulpoor, which in 1820 contained about 200 houses, and belonged to Holkar.

Tallimally.—A small town with the remains of a fort, situated in the wild mountainous country on the verge of the table-land of Mysore, but within the limits of the Coimbatoor province, at the head of the Guzzelhutty pass, about sixty-one miles S. by E. from the city of Mysore. There is here a bungalow provided by government for the accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Talnere (*Thalnir*).—A fort in the province of Candeish, situated on the north bank, and commanding a ford over the river Tuptee, ninety-three miles west from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 13′ N., lon. 75° E. By Abul Fazel it is noticed as the capital of Adil Shah, the first independent sovereign of Candeish, A.D. 1406. After the dissolution of the Mogul empire it came early into the possession of the Maharattas, and was one of the cessions made to the British by the Holcar family, at the treaty of Mundessor; but when summoned by Sir Thomas Hislop in 1818, the commandant and garrison resisted. A gate was then blown up, and the commandant came out by the wicket and surrendered himself; but when some British officers and soldiers entered by the same passage, they were treacherously attacked by the Arab garrison, and several of them killed and wounded. The place was afterwards stormed and the whole of the garrison put to the sword, and the commandant hanged on one of the bastions as a punishment for his rebellion in the first instance, and the subsequent (with or without his knowledge) treachery of the garrison in the second.

On one side Talnere rises out of the Tuptee, and the three other sides are surrounded by a hollow way varying in width from 100 to 150 yards. The walls rise to the height of sixty feet above this hollow, and the interior of the fort has the same elevation. The only entrance is on the eastern side, and is secured by five successive gates communicating by intricate traverses, whose enclosures rise to the height of the main wall. The ground immediately surrounding the hollow way is cut into deep ravines, which run into it, and the intermediate parts are crowned with clusters of houses that form the town of Talnere, distant from the fort about 350 yards. The surrounding country is flat, but separated from the town by other ravines branching out in various directions.—(*Sir T. Hislop, Blacker, Prinsep, &c.*)

Taloua.—A small town in the province of Agra, twenty-three miles E. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 41′ N., lon. 78° 45′ E.

Tambracherry.—A small inland town in the province of Malabar, twenty miles N.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 26′ N., lon. 76° E. From the woods around this place some teak and viti trees are annually procured.

Tambehkan.—A small town in

Northern Hindostan, situated in the narrow part of the Nepaul valley, inhabited by mountain Hindoos. Near to it is a productive copper mine; lat. 27° 35′ N., lon. 84° 46′ E.

TAMBARAPURNI RIVER.—See TINNAVELLY DISTRICT.

TAMLINGTAR.—A town in the kingdom of Nepaul, situated between the Arun and Soreya, which are here about three miles distant from each other; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 86° 52′ E.; 110 miles N.N.W. from Purneah. It is the largest place in the Chayenpoor district, and according to native accounts contains about 6,000 inhabitants. The plain in which it stands is about twenty miles from north to south, and six from east to west. It is bounded on the west by the Arun, but is not clear of jungle.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TAMUL (*or Tamil*).—This is the proper national appellation of the Sudras of the eastern side of the south of India; and the pracrit bhasham, or vulgar dialect of the country, is there called the language of the Tamuls. It is principally spoken in the tract of country south of Telingana to Cape Comorin, and from the coast of Coromandel to the great range of hills, including the greater part of Barramahal, Salem, and the country now called Coimbatoor, along which line it is bounded on the west by the province of Malabar. Both language and people are by those of Carnata called Arabi and Tigular, and the Tamul Brahmins designated Dravida Brahmins. By Europeans this language is miscalled Malabar. The Tamul land is the same as Dravida, beginning on the southern bank of the Krishna, and occupying the eastern half of the southern extremity of the Indian triangle to Cape Comorin. There never was any proper geographical division named Tamul, the term having reference to the diffusion of the language.—(*Wilks, F. Buchanan, Warren, &c.*)

TANAHUNG.—A small district in Northern Hindostan, intersected by many streams, and subject to the Nepaulese. Its chief was formerly one of the twenty-four rajas, and while independent his country consisted of two portions; one of the hills that surround Gorkha on the west and south, and the other in the valley of the Rapty, which is adjacent to the southern portion of that on the hills, and was inhabited by the common Hindoos of Mithila and Tirhoot. It contains the pergunnahs of Chetwa, Belan and Sengjihayat, the two first of which are tolerably cultivated. The mountains of Tanahung were inhabited by the same race as Palpa, and nearly in the same proportions. Its southern division contained three towns, Yogemara, Upadraug, and Kayilas, the first of which is said to be large, and a military station of some importance.

No chief resisted with such gallantry and effect the rising power of Prithi Narrain of Gorkha, who in 1769, having completed the conquest of Nepaul proper, attacked the petty chiefs west of the Trisoolganga, usually called the twenty-four rajas. For some time he had rapid success, but being defeated in a decisive battle, he was compelled to relinquish his conquests, nor was any attempt made to extend the dominions of Gorkha to the west, until the Palpa raja was gained. On this event the overthrow of Tanahung took place, but the raja made his escape to the British district of Sarun, where his family still retain in security a small remnant of their former possessions. The Tanahung family, as well as the Palpa branch, is very generally admitted to be descended of the Chitore, and to be one of the highest and purest tribes on the hills east of the Cali.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TANAKEKE ISLE.—A small island about twelve miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, and situated off the south-western extremity of Celebes; lat. 5° 30′ N., lon. 119° 10′ E. This island was formerly given up by the Dutch to

the Malays in their service. Many of the smaller isles are uninhabited, and others peopled by the Buggesses. —(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

TANDAH (*or Tangra*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, adjacent to the ruins of ancient Gour; lat. 24° 49′ N., lon. 88° 15′ E. In A.D. 1564 Soliman Shah, one of the Bengal sovereigns of the Shere Shah dynasty, made this place his capital, esteeming its situation more healthy than that of Gour. In 1660 Sultan Shuja was defeated near Tanda, by Meer Jumla, Aurengzebe's general. In 1819 there was scarcely a trace remaining of the ancient city, even the rampart having disappeared, and owing to the surrounding swamps and stagnant water, its site has never been considered healthy by Europeans.—(*F. Buchanan, Stewart, Rennell, Fullarton, &c.*)

TANETE.—A town and small principality in the island of Celebes, situated about half way between Fort Rotterdam and the bay of Sorian; lat. 4° 14′ S., lon. 119° 35′ E. In A.D. 1775 this petty state was tributary to the Dutch, and governed by a female.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

TANJORE.—A district in the southern Carnatic, extending along the sea-coast, and situated principally between the tenth and eleventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it has the district of Chinglepat, on the south that of Madura, to the east it has the bay of Bengal, and on the west Trichinopoly and Madura.

This little principality is entitled to the second rank among all the provinces of Hindostan, for agricultural produce and valued rent, the first being due to the district of Burdwan in Bengal. For the purposes of irrigation prodigious mounds have been raised at Coclady, to prevent the waters of the Cavery from rejoining those of the Coleroon, after they have separated near Trichinopoly. From the southern branch of the river canals are conducted in all directions, which, by means of embankments and reservoirs, are diverted into every field, and fertilize a tract of country from Devicotta to Calymere point, which would otherwise remain barren sand. In the immediate vicinity of the city of Tanjore, and along the line from thence to Trichinopoly, the tract of alluvial land subject to periodical inundation, is confined generally to a space of a few miles on either bank of the superior river; but after passing the first of the branches, that strike off to form the great delta of the Cavery about twenty miles to the eastward of the capital, the whole face of the country presents one flat sheet of rice cultivation, interspersed with innumerable groupes of trees and hamlets, being nearly a counterpart to the general surface of Bengal proper.

From a report on the affairs of Tanjore in 1807, it appears to have contained 5,873 towns. The Mahomedans having never actually occupied this territory, or effected any permanent establishment in it, the Hindoo religion has been preserved in considerable splendour, and the ancient places of worship, with their vast endowments, remain untouched. In almost every village there is a pagoda, with a lofty gateway of massive, but not elegant architecture, where a great many Brahmins are maintained either by the revenues formerly attached to them, or by an allowance from government. On all the great roads leading to these sacred places are choultries, built for the accommodation of pilgrims. The Brahmins are here the chief landholders, and perform almost every office of husbandry except holding the plough. In 1816, according to Sir Thomas Munro's estimate, the district of Tanjore contained 5,011 villages, and in 1822, according to the returns of the collector, 903,353 inhabitants. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 1,086,641 star pagodas.

Of late this district has been much improved by the formation of excel-

lent roads, which traverse the low country from Tanjore to Nagore on the one side, and on the other to Combooconum and Porto Novo. These roads, or rather elevated causeways, are about twelve or fifteen feet wide, shaded for the most part with rows of Parkinsonia, and from eight to ten feet higher than the level of the adjacent fields. The principal inundation here from the Cavery being at a different season of the year from that at which the periodical rains fall on this part of the Coromandel coast, the roads are not liable to be broken up and rendered impassable at the very time when they are most wanted; the principal ferries also throughout Tanjore are probably on a more efficient footing than those of any other portion of Hindostan.

In the remote times of Hindoo antiquity Tanjore was distinguished geographically by the name of Chola Desa, from whence originated by several corruptions the word Coromandel, and in native manuscripts its chief is still designated the Chola raja. The present race are descended from Eccojee, a Maharatta chief (brother to Sevajee), who in A.D. 1675 conquered the city and province, which have been retained by the same dynasty ever since, the Maharatta being still the proper language of the Tanjore court. The expedition of the British troops into this principality in 1749, was the first warfare in the Carnatic where they were engaged against the forces of a native prince, and it proved unsuccessful as to its main object, the restoration of a deposed raja of Tanjore, who had applied for assistance to the governor of Fort St. David. In 1799 a commutation of subsidy was effected, and the territory of Tanjore transferred to the British jurisdiction. On this event the raja reserved to himself several palaces, the Tranquebar tribute of 2,000 chuckrums, a clear allowance of a lack of rupees annually, and one-fifth of the surplus revenues, after payment of the civil and military disbursements, which realizes to him twice as much more. As a particular favour he was allowed to retain the two forts of Tanjore, which he keeps in excellent repair, and garrisons with 1,500 men.

Serfajee, the present raja, is the adopted son of Tuljajee, who died in 1786. He was carefully educated under a respectable Danish missionary, Mr. Schwartz, and among christians, yet he continues a staunch adherent to the Brahminical doctrines and superstitions. In other respects he is a man of liberal sentiments, and particularly indulgent to the Danish missionaries who live in his country. While yet an independent prince he protected their schools, which were fostered by his old tutor, Mr. Schwartz, and extended his kindness to the Roman Catholics also, who in 1785 were estimated at 10,000 persons. From the general toleration, even the Brahmins in this district appear to have relaxed a little from the rigour of their tenets, as they have procured a printing-press, which they have dedicated to the glory of their gods. The inevitable effect, however, of the administration being carried on by British functionaries throughout all departments of the province, has been the progressive reduction and ultimate annihilation of the raja's influence within the territories of his ancestors. In 1811 he was gratified with the title of highness instead of excellency, which concession he received with such an excess of joy and exultation as proved that his European education had not eradicated his prejudices. In 1816 the Tranquebar tribute, amounting to 2,000 chuckrums, annually, was transferred to him, and at his own request the arrears, amounting to 19,000 chuckrums, were also made good to him, paid over distinct from his regular annual revenue. On the 6th December 1826 the aggregate amount of claims preferred before the commissioners in England and India for investigating the debts of Amer Singh, formerly raja of Tanjore, amounted to 34,44,875 star pagodas. These debts appear to have been

contracted above thirty years ago, and on investigation will probably, like those of the nabob of Arcot, prove in a large proportion fictitious.

This portion of the Carnatic having never been thoroughly subdued by the Mahomedans, retains, in their ancient perfection, many of the most objectionable Hindoo customs, and amongst others the voluntary immolation of widows on the funeral pile of their husbands. In 1815 it appears, by documents submitted by the judge, that 100 of these sacrifices had taken place subsequent to the establishment of the court at Combooconum, although it had always been the practice of the magistrate to dissuade the infatuated victim from this horrid act of suicide. The custom it appears was not encouraged by natives of influence or education, and it had long been discouraged by the raja of Tanjore; indeed, with the exception of a few necessitous Brahmins, who derive a profit from this cruel rite, it did not appear that its total abolition here would meet with any serious opposition. Considering, however, the force of prejudice, by which the unfortunate victims were actuated, and the misconstruction to which the interposition of the authority of government was liable, the Madras presidency doubted how far the measure of expressly prohibiting it would be effectual, or free from the danger of worse consequences (secret instead of public burnings) than those against which it was meant to provide.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Blackburne, Public MS. Documents, Wilks, &c.*)

TANJORE.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated in lat. 10° 42′ N., lon. 79° 11′ E., 182 miles S.S.W. from Madras. This place consists of two parts, the fortified city, and the fort or citadel, built on the same level, and connected with the first by a curtain and narrow passage. The walls are lofty, and built of large stones, and on the corners of the ramparts are cavaliers; the ditch, which is broad and deep, is cut out of the solid rock, and has a well-formed glacis. The city itself is more regularly built, and contains a larger proportion of solid and ornamental edifices, public and private, than any other native town south of the Krishna. The principal streets intersect each other at right angles; the palace (a confused and extensive group of buildings), fronting the southern entrance, and a street extending from thence westward, composed of a double line of pagodas. The fort contains the celebrated pagoda, which is perhaps the finest specimen of the pyramidical temple in Hindostan. Its grand tower is 199 feet high, and, contrary to the usual practice in the south of India, is placed immediately over the image, and not over the principal entrance. It is remarkable also for its greater simplicity of stile, for its more exact approach to the true pyramid, and for the globular termination of its summit, instead of the sarcophagus top usual in the greater part of the Carnatic. Under a stone canopy in the area, and opposite to the door of the sanctuary, is a bull carved from a block of black granite, an excellent example of Hindoo sculpture.

Close by this great temple stands the church of the Christian missionaries, a singular monument of Hindoo toleration. The English mission established here, continues under the superintendance of a Danish clergyman, the successor of Schwartz, and occupies extensive premises in the environs of the city. Although a connexion with their establishment is not without some worldly advantages, their success in the propagation of the christian faith up to 1820, had, on the whole, been inconsiderable. Their converts are said to be in general of good conduct, but remarkable even beyond the other natives of the province, for the indolence of their habits.

The British residency lies to the south of the city, and without the walls; towards the north-west there is an extensive suburb. From one of the cavaliers on the ramparts there

is a beautiful view of the surrounding country. The great pagoda forms the foreground, then appears the fort, with the raja's palaces and temples, behind which a rich tract is seen covered with rice fields and clumps of trees, and beyond all a lofty chain of mountains. The river Cavery is here at the highest when the periodical rains prevail in Mysore.

In remote ages Tanjore was the great seat of learning in the south of India, whose almanacs were composed by its learned men according to which A.D. 1800, correspond with 1722 of salivahanam, and the year 4901 of the cali yug; which reckoning differs one year in the first era, and seven in the second, from that used in Karnata. The British were repulsed from before Tanjore in A.D. 1749, and it was besieged without success by M. Lally in 1758. Travelling distance from Madras 205 miles; from Seringapatam 237; and from Calcutta 1,235 miles.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, F. Buchanan, Rennell, &c.*)

TANJORE.—A town among the mountains in the interior of Java, seventy-two miles travelling distance S.S.E. from Batavia; lat. 6° 45′ S., lon. 107° 10′ E. The surrounding country is pleasant and well cultivated, and here its regent or native superintendent resides. It is situated at nearly equal distances from the two seas.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

TANNA (*Thana*).—A town and fortress on the island of Salsette, which commands the passage, here 200 yards broad, between the island and the mainland; lat. 19° 11′ N., lon. 73° 6′ E; twenty miles N. by E. from Bombay. This is a straggling place, but not very large, has several Porteguese churches and many Christian inhabitants, who are famous for their breed of hogs, and their dexterity at curing bacon.

TANORE.—A town on the sea-coast of the Malabar province, nineteen miles S.S.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 3′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E. This was formerly a place of considerable note, but is now reduced to the condition of an obscure village.

TANTALAM.—A considerable island in the gulf of Siam, about the eighth degree of north latitude, extending along the east coast of the Malay peninsula, from which it is separated by a very narrow arm of the sea. In length it may be estimated at sixty miles by about twelve the average breadth, and is subject to the Siamese. The name is supposed to be a corruption of the Malay tana, land, and Thaloong a Siamese province lying between Songora and Ligore.

TAPANOOLY.—A settlement originally established by the British, on a small island at the bottom of the bay of Tapanooly in Sumatra, but given up along with the others to the Dutch in 1818; lat. 1° 40′ N., lon. 98° 50′ E. The bay of Tapanooly, with the island of Mansalar, forms one of the finest ports in the world, composed of such a complication of harbours within each other, that a large ship might lie so hid among them, as not to be discovered without a laborious research. This inlet penetrates to the heart of the Battas country, with whom a considerable traffic is carried on, and timber for masts and spars may be procured in various creeks.

The large kima cockle (*chama gigas*) abounds in this gulf, and has been found three feet three inches in its longest diameter, and two feet one inch across. The substance of the shell is in general perfectly white and several inches thick. The roe of this cockle sometimes weighs six pounds, and the fish altogether, when cleared off the shell, from twenty to thirty pounds. One method of taking them in deep water is by thrusting a bamboo between the valves as they lie open, which is made fast by the immediate closure of the shell. In this bay are also found most beautiful corallines and madrepores.

TAPOOL.—A small island in the eastern seas, one of the Sooloo archi-

pelago, situated due south from the large Sooloo. It affords plenty of fresh water and abounds with small cattle, goats, and yams,—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

Tapoor Ghaut.—A remarkable pass through the mountains leading from the district of Salem proper, into the Barramahal, about twenty-eight miles travelling distance N. by W. from the town of Salem.

Taraghur.—This is the fortress of the city of Ajmeer, which lies at the base of the hill on which Taraghur stands. It is nearly two miles in circumference, but from its irregular shape and surface is not capable of containing more than 1,200 men. In most parts it is quite inaccessible, and it has abundance of good water in tanks and cisterns cut into the rock. There are bomb-proofs of vast extent, and store-houses like wells, and with a very little European improvement it might be made a second Gibraltar. It has never, however, been any part of British policy in India to rely on fortresses. Lat. 26° 31′ N., lon. 74° 28′ E.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

Taraghur.—A small fort in Northern Hindostan, commanded during the Nepaulese war by Bhagti Thappa, and captured by Sir D. Ochterlony in 1815; lat. 31° 11′ N., lon. 76° 46′ E.

Tareecheer.—A town in the province of Agra, nineteen miles E. by S. from Jansi; lat. 25° 25′ N., lon. 78° 49′ E.

Tarhar.—A small subdivision of the Allahabad province, which during the reign of Aurengzebe was formed of sections of land dismembered from the contiguous districts. It lies due south of the city of Allahabad, on the opposite side of the river.

Tarhigang Mountain.—A mountain in Northern Hindostan, ascended by Messrs. Gerards to the prodigious height of 19,411 feet above the level of the sea. The summit, about 22,000 feet high, was only two miles distant from the station they had reached.—See also Pargeul.

Taroli.—A small town with a native fortification in the province of Agra, twenty-six miles E. by N. from Jansi; lat. 25° 32′ N., lon. 78° 57′ E.

Tasrah.—A town and small pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, which in 1817 yielded a revenue to the British government of 92,650 rupees. A licentious class of Mahomedans were found settled here, named Maliks, who it appears were entitled to one third of the crops.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Tassisudon.—The residence of the Deb raja, and modern capital of Bootan; lat. 27° 5′ N., lon. 89° 40′ E.; 106 miles north from the town of Cooch Bahar. It stands in a highly cultivated valley, about three miles in length by one in breadth, intersected by the river Tchintchieu, the banks of which are lined with willows. On the surrounding mountains are some timber trees intermixed with pine and fir, and a great variety of flowering shrubs. The climate generally is described as being remarkably salubrious.

The castle or palace of Tassisudon is situated near the centre of the valley, and is a stone building of a quadrangular form. The walls are thirty feet high, and pierced below with very small windows, apparently more for the purpose of admitting air than light. The citadel is a very lofty building, consisting of seven stories, each from fifteen to twenty feet high. From the centre of these a square piece of masonry rises, which supports a canopy of copper richly gilt, supposed to be over the image of Maha Muni. The Deb raja of Bootan dwells in the citadel on the fourth story from the ground. In the vicinity of Tassisudon there is a long line of sheds, where workmen are employed in forging brazen gods, and various other ornaments dispersed about their religious edifices. There

is here also a considerable manufacture of paper, fabricated from the the bark of a tree named deah, which grows in great abundance near this city, but is not produced in the tract adjacent to Bengal. It is very strong and capable of being woven, when gilt by way of ornament, into the texture of silks and satins.—(*Captain Turner, &c.*)

TATTA (*Tutta*).—A large district in the province of Mooltan, situated between the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Sinde Proper, on the south by the sea, on the west it has the sea and Baloochistan, and on the east, in modern times, by the main branch of the Indus. Its ancient dimensions and political importance, from the description given by Abul Fazel in 1582, appear to have been much more considerable than in its present depressed condition. Indeed Tatta, since he wrote, has experienced so unceasing a decay, that it is in danger of relapsing to a state of nature.

Although similar in many of their geographical features, the delta of the Indus presents in other respects a remarkable contrast to that of the Ganges. On the west from the seacoast to the city of Tatta, scarcely any thing is to be seen but an arid, sandy country, covered in different places with the milk-bush, and other shrubs peculiar to sterile lands, almost destitute of fresh water, which must be procured from an immense depth under ground. Here and there low ranges of bare craggy hills are seen, but scarcely a vestige of agriculture or population for many miles from the sea. Between Tatta and Corachie, the modern port of Sinde, are many tombs and ruins, indicative of a former prosperity, very different from the present miserable condition of the province. The walls and other remains of the ancient city of Bamburah are still discernible, but covered with baubool and other wild shrubs, and inhabited only by a few Indian ascetics. In the same tract there is an inland lake of considerable extent, brackish to the taste, but navigable for small boats, which is probably the forsaken bed of some very ancient branch of the Indus, and by which, during the freshes, when the floods are at the highest, the low country is still inundated. As the city of Tatta is approached from the sea, the soil and aspect of the country improve; but continues without trees, and almost destitute of inhabitants. Camels are bred in this quarter, the tender parts of the brushwood serving them for pasture. From Sinde to Goa the natives of India use the word kaunta (a fork) to signify also borders on the sea-coast, and know the delta of the Indus under the name of Sindhu Kaunta, which approximates to the term preserved in the latin maps of Canthi Sindi.

For the last fifty years Tatta has been under the government of the ameers of Sinde, and subjected to every species of rapine and extortion. In 1809 the city and district of Tatta were said to yield a revenue of 1,45,000 rupees per annum: the division of Sunkra, 80,000; the seaport of Corachie, 1,10,000; and Dharaja, 80,000. The district of Kahralee is asserted to have produced a revenue of six lacks, during the reign of the Calorie dynasty, which in 1809 had declined to 1,90,000 rupees. The land situated between the salt and fresh water branches of the river was then said to yield only 91,000 rupees per annum. The territory contains only one town of note, which is Tatta the capital.

This quarter of Hindostan was invaded by the Mahomedans at a very early period after the promulgation of their religion. The caliph Omar despatched Moghaireh Abul Aas, who, embarking at Bahrein, attacked the western portion of the delta of the Indus; but meeting with unexpected resistance, was defeated and slain. As Omar died in A.D. 641, this expedition must have been undertaken about A.D. 639 or 640. Othman, his successor, attempted an invasion by land; but having sent people to

survey the roads, he was deterred by the unfavourable nature of their report. It does not appear to have been actually subdued by the Emperor Acber until 1590, although long prior to that date inserted in the official list of provinces subject to his government. Since the fall of the Mogul empire it has followed the destiny of Sinde, and still continues under the sway of its semi-barbarous ameers.—(*Smith*, *Maxfield*, *Abul Fazel*, *Drummond*, *&c.*)

Tatta.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the banks of the Indus, about 130 miles from the sea, by the course of the river; lat 24° 44′ N., lon. 68° 17′ E. This town stands in a valley formed by a range of low rocky hills, which during the freshes of the river is inundated; but being placed on an eminence apparently composed of ancient ruins, during the height of the floods presents an insular appearance. The streets are very narrow and dirty; but the houses, although irregularly built of mud, chopped straw, and wood, are superior to the low huts commonly seen in native towns. The better sort of houses are built of brick and lime. The old English factory, purchased by the Company in 1751, still remains, and may be reckoned the best house, not only in Tatta, but in the whole province of Sinde. To the southward of the factory, within the town, are the remains of an old fort, which must have been a strong position against assailants ignorant of artillery tactics. In 1809 there was not any military force stationed in the town, which was then governed by a nabob, or deputy from the ameers of Sinde.

Tatta was originally defended by a strong brick wall, with round towers; but now these are a heap of ruins, and the mosques and pagodas that remain exhibit rapid symptoms of decay. In 1809 the circumference of the town was from four to five miles, but the number of inhabitants only 15,000. It was once famous for its commerce and cloth manufactories; besides a considerable traffic in rice, wheat, hides, &c.; but at present the only fabrics manufactured are a few white cloths and coloured loongees, the shops exhibiting a melancholy picture of poverty and depression.

Opposite to Tatta the Indus is in general shoal, on which account trading boats come to off a small village named Begurah, distant five miles south by east, where the deepest water is four fathoms; but for the most part only two, and the channel about one mile in breadth. The boats employed on the Indus are flat-bottomed, square head and stern, low forward, high abaft, and drawing only a few inches of water. Oars are seldom used, the boats being usually pushed along with poles; and when the wind is fair, recourse is also had to sails. From Tatta to Hyderabad there are four routes, two by land and two by water, the shortest of which may be estimated at fifty-three miles. At this place the monsoon prevails with considerable violence between May and October, attended with hard squalls of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain.

The country round Tatta is a rich soil, watered by conduits from the Indus, and partly submerged during the freshes, but susceptible of the highest cultivation. On the hill of Muckalee, a mile to the west of the city, is an amazing collection of tombs and mausoleums, the habitations of the dead much exceeding in number those of the living. The tomb of Mirza Eesau is uncommonly magnificent and well-executed, and is supposed to have been erected about A.D. 1622. It consists of a large, square, stone building, two stories high, having a great dome, supported by many pillars, which, as well as the body of the building, are covered with sentences extracted from the Koran. Some of the inscriptions on the other tombs appear fresh, and quite legible, although engraved above 170 years ago. On the banks of the Indus, seven miles above Tatta, is another hill, covered with white mosques and Mahomedan tombs,

some of considerable size. Near to one of the smallest, which is held in great veneration by the votaries of both religions, is a large bone stuck upright in the earth, about eighteen feet long, one thick, and two broad, which the natives assert was procured from a fish.

Dr. Robertson is of opinion that Tatta is the Pattala of the ancients; but the low and alluvial districts of Sinde have undergone, even recently, such changes that nothing positive can be affirmed on this head. The name may possibly have referred to the city of Brahminabad, now in ruins, but which appears to have been a metropolis in the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity. Mention is made of Tatta so early as 92 of the Hejira, or A.D. 714. The modern city is said to have been founded by Jam Mundel, the fourteenth of the Someah dynasty, A.D. 1485. It was taken and plundered by the Portuguese in 1555, but continued in the sixteenth century populous and commercial, and possessing manufactures of silk, Caramania wool, and cotton. Even so late as 1742, when visited by Nadir Shah, it was a place of considerable trade, since which date its decay has been uninterrupted. It continued, however, the capital of the principality until the present rulers built the fortress of Hyderabad, and transferred thither the seat of government. Travelling distance from Bombay, 741 miles; from Calcutta, 1,602 miles.—(*Smith, Maxfield, Pottinger, Rennell, &c.*)

TATTORA.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-three miles S.S.E. from the city of Poona; lat. 17° 53′ N., lon. 74° 29′ E.

TAUDICOMBOO.—A neat village in the Carnatic province, and district of Madura, situated on a peninsula formed by the junction of two rivulets, seven miles from the town of Dindigul; lat. 10° 24′ N., lon. 78° 2′ E.

TAUJEPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, thirty-six miles E. by N. from the town of Purneah; lat. 25° 45′ N., lon. 88° 15′ E.

TAUJGAON (*Tajgrama*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifteen miles north from Merritch; lat. 17° 4′ N., lon. 74° 46′ E. This place was fortified by Purseram Bhow, and in 1792 was considered the capital of his dominions, being then the residence of his family, in whose possession it has continued ever since. In 1820 it was governed by a boy, seven years of age, descended from that fighting Brahmin.

The most remarkable object here is a temple of Gunpati (Ganesa), with a lofty pointed, pyramidical porch of seven stories, its exterior crowded with images, and terminating above in three black pinnacles; the whole after the fashion of the south of India.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TAUNDA.—A town in the province of Oude, situated on the south side of the Goggra river, thirty-five miles S.E. from Fyzabad; lat. 26° 33′ N., lon. 82° 32′ E.

TAUNDA.—A small town in the province of Malwa, division of Rath, situated on the left bank of the Annas river, about fifteen miles west of Jabboah. The surrounding country is covered with jungle; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 74° 25′ E.

TAUNDLA.—A town in the province of Malwa, eighty miles west from the city of Oojein; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E.

TAVOY.—The provinces of Tavoy (including Ye) and Tenasserim occupy a narrow strip of land, extending from lat. 10°35′ N. to 15°30′ N., or 340 miles in length, by an average breadth of forty-four miles, giving an area of about 15,000 square miles. They are confined between the sea on the west; the Siamese mountains on the east; on the south by the Pakchan river; and on the north by another small river. These mountains extend in an irregular but continuous line from the river Brahmaputra in Assam to the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula, and have long

been recognized as the boundary line both by the Burmese and Siamese. Some of the loftiest peaks rise to the height of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet, but the general elevation of the ridge is not so great.

Tavoy proper is bounded on the north by the Henza river, twenty-seven miles south of Ye stockade, but the distinct line of separation from Tenasserim on the south has not yet been ascertained. The sea-coast is a labyrinth of creeks, rivers, and low alluvial islands; but at a little distance it is studded with numerous rocky islands and islets, and always navigable. Almost the whole surface of this province is covered with forest trees, jungle, and luxuriant vegetation: yet the climate is considered healthy, and the Karian natives who inhabit these jungles are comparatively robust. The monsoon winds and periodical rains are nearly the same as in Bengal. The soil of Tavoy is excellent, and capable of yielding the finest fruits, vegetables, and grains, but more especially rice (the grand staple), indigo, and tobacco. The other articles of commerce are sapan-wood (the supply of which is inexhaustible), tin, elephants'-teeth, wood oil, birds'-nests, biche-de-mar, ambergris, betel-nut, agar-wood, and (with the exception of teak) timber fit for ship-building. In February 1826 the principal Chinese merchant was bringing 200 of his countrymen from Penang to work the mines of tin, which metal appears to stop in this country, it not being found further north. The numerous rivers and creeks penetrating the interior to the heart of the forest, afford great facilities for boat and prow-building. The production of the delicious mangusteen and dorian fruits also stop here, not being found to the north. The last, although of rapid decay, were sent to the court of Ummerapoora as a great delicacy. The plough is not used in this quarter, the rice fields being prepared more by the trampling of buffaloes, of which considerable numbers are kept, although the natives make little use of their milk and butter, both of which, as well as of the cow, are disliked by the Chinese and Indo-Chinese nations.

When conquered by the British in 1824 a large proportion of the inhabitants were found collected round the capital and along the sea-coast in its vicinity, the interior being then almost destitute of population. They consist of Burmese, Karians, Chinese, and a few Peguers. The religion of all is Buddhism, without distinction of caste. Marriage is merely a mutual assent, yet common prostitution was little practised until the arrival of the Europeans, for whom the females shewed a strong predilection. The laws and written character are Burmese, the language a dialect of Burmese. The custom of debtor slavery, or mortgaged labour, prevails universally; another great source of slaves was the sale of government criminals; price of a slave from thirty to sixty rupees. The last was immediately abolished by the British, but the first required time, it being a matter of property.

In 1825 the total population of Tavoy, Ye, and Tenasserim, comprehending a surface of 15,000 square miles, was only estimated at 26,000 inhabitants, or rather less than one and three quarters to the square mile. Under such circumstances these provinces appear well suited for the experiment of European colonization, and the concession of landed property, there being no native claimants to interfere with; an influx of industrious Chinese, however, would probably have ultimately a much more beneficial result. Hitherto, groaning under the tyranny of the Burmese, the natives have rather avoided the acquisition of money than sought it, having wrought solely by compulsion; it will consequently require more than the mere stimulus of punctual payment to make them forego the luxury of idleness. The example of Chinese settlers to rouse them to exertion is therefore of great importance, and in fact, without the natives of China (which like Britain

is now overflowing with population) the trade of Siam, Java, Penang, and other places eastward, would sink to nothing.

The receipts and disbursements for the provinces of Tavoy and Tenasserim, estimated prospectively, for 1826-7, were as follows.

Disbursements.

Civil charges ....S. Rs.	90,000
Marine ditto..................	27,000
Contingencies	5,000
Excess of receipts	43,000
Sicca rupees...	1,65,000

Receipts.

Birds'-nest monopoly	33,000
Different farms (opium, &c.)	54,000
Landed rent, ten per cent. produce	25,000
Judicial receipts	5,000
Profit on tin..................	48,000
Sicca rupees...	1,65,000

Besides the above disbursements the military charges were estimated at 1,00,000 rupees, and the expense of a Company's cruiser at 34,000 rupees. Two native regiments of about 1,500 infantry were required for their defence, and a small brig and four gun-boats to be employed among the creeks, islands, and rivers. —(*Fullerton, Low, Maingy, &c.*)

Tavoy.—This place stands on the banks of the Tavoy river, about thirty miles from its mouth; lat. 14° 4′ N., lon. 98° 5′ E. Its situation is unfavourable to commerce, as during the dry season vessels exceeding 150 tons burthen cannot approach within sixteen miles; it had therefore better be abandoned for some port nearer the river's junction with the sea, such as Crab island, which is only twelve miles up, and where ships now anchor. Prows, junks, and small craft, however, can ascend at all seasons, but the site of the town being low, it becomes during the rainy season almost a swamp, although there are eminences in the neighbourhood. The spot was probably originally selected to shun the Siamese.

The fort consists of two walled enclosures, 500 to 800 yards distant from each other. The extent of the inner wall, which is constructed of burned bricks, is about two miles and a half; the outer wall only encloses the north and west faces. In 1825 the whole population of the province were congregated either within the town or in its vicinity, so that it is impossible to assign it any definite number. From hence to Bankok, the capital of Siam, is reckoned only nine days' journey overland.

So late as 1826 some persons who had been chiefs under the Burmese were secretly creating an agitation by working on the hopes and fears of the natives, but they were removed to Rangoon; after which the Tavoyers, who are a quiet, orderly race, when they became convinced that the transfer was final, appeared delighted with their escape from the Burmese yoke. — (*Gov. Fullerton, Lieut. Low, Mr. Maingy, Capt. Burney, &c.*)

Tawally Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, one of the Gilolo group, situated within the first degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by six the average breadth.

Taweetawee.—A cluster of islands in the Eastern seas, about fifty-six in number, forming part of the Sooloo archipelago. Some are of considerable extent, others are high, some low, and not a few mere rocks. The chain of islands to the south-east of Taweetawee are all low, with a labyrinth of shoals between them, abounding with fish, and productive of the pearl oyster. The main island has plenty of excellent water, but very few inhabitants. The names given to many of these small islands in the Malay language are so indecent that they do not admit of translation.—(*Dalrymple, &c.*)

Tawerghiri.—A considerable village in the province of Bejapoor, division of Gujunderghur, about thirty-four miles north from the ancient city of Bijanagur. This place is situ-

ated among low hills in a wild country, and from the numerous ruins of Mahomedan tombs appears to have been once a place of some importance. At present it belongs to the Nizam.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TAYA ISLE (*Pulo Taya*).—A small island in the Eastern seas, situated on the east coast of Sumatra; lat. 0° 48′ N., lon. 105° 5′ E.

TEARY.—See TEHREE.

TEEPGAON.—A town in the province of Malwa, four miles distance from Mahomedpoor, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 300 houses.

TEESTA RIVER (*tishta, standing still*).—The source of this river has never been explored, but according to Nepaulese reports it rises in Tibet, whence, after opening a passage through the great Himalaya ridge, forming the boundary of the Chinese empire, it enters the mountainous country to the south, and before the last war separated the dominions of the Gorkhas from those of the Bootan or Deb raja. While proceeding from the hills the Teesta falls down the precipices of a mountain, about fifty miles north of Jelpigory, and enters the Rungpoor district near its northern extremity, where it is bounded by the principality of Sikkim, and has a channel 800 yards wide, containing at all seasons a great deal of water, with a quick stream broken by rocks and rapids. South from the cataract single logs of wood can be floated to within ten miles of the Bengal frontier, to which distance canoes can ascend. In the dry season boats of 150 maunds can ascend to Paharpoor, near the frontiers of Sikkim; but during the rains boats of 1,000 maunds. This river, during its course through the British territories, receives the accession of many streams, and is subjected to frequent changes of name and channel, until it at last joins the Padda, or great eastern branch (or trunk) of the Ganges near Nabobgunge, after performing a course, including windings, of about 400 miles.

The deity of the Teesta river is supposed to be an old woman, and is one of the common objects of worship, or village gods, among the simple ethnics of the vicinity. This venerable nymph envying the attention paid to a rival named Budiswara, detached a portion of her river to destroy the temple where her competitor received adoration. The stratagem however did not succeed, as the stream detached on this predatory excursion, through the counter influence of Budiswara, was met and swallowed up by another river named the Korotoya. Branches of this river which have ceased to be the principal channels are, as is frequent among the natives, named the dead Teesta. Its name in Sanscrit is said to be Trishna or Trisrota, the first implying thirst, the latter three springs. According to the Calipurana it is said to have originated in the following manner. Parvati, the wife of Siva, was one day fighting with an asura, or infidel, who would only worship her husband. This monster during the combat becoming very thirsty prayed to Siva, who rather unreasonably ordered his wife to supply her adversary with drink to refresh him. The Teesta in consequence sprung from the breasts of the goddess in three streams, and in like manner has ever since continued to flow.

The Teesta begins to swell in the spring, and usually rises two or three inches between the 12th of April and the 12th of June, owing probably to the melting of the snow, no considerable change, however, takes place until the rainy season. Above and below Chilmary it communicates with the Brahmaputra by means of several channels.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TEETLACOT.—A fortified post in the Choudan's country, in Northern Hindostan, three miles north from the Cali river; lat. 29° 58′ N., lon. 80° 37′ E.

TEESGAON.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-eight miles N.E. from Ahmednuggur; lat. 19° 13′ N., lon. 75° 18′ E.

TEHRWARA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, about fifteen miles north from Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 71° 25′ E. In 1809 this place nominally belonged to Kumaul Khan, but was in fact a den of thieves, and in 1820 its inhabitants continued to be the terror of the country. Its chief was then a Baloochy, although his dependents were Coolies. He had many subordinate towns and villages, from which tribute was claimed, and sometimes realized: but the whole of this portion of Gujerat at the date last mentioned, presented a scene of general desolation. In 1809 the military force of Tehrwara consisted of forty horse and 300 foot; in 1820 of two horse and eighty-two foot.—(*Miles, Macmurdo, &c.*)

TEHINTCHIEW RIVER.—A river of Bootan, which passes Tassisudon, and being swelled by the united streams of the Hatchieu and Patchieu, finds a passage through the mountains from whence it is precipitated in tremendous cataracts, and rushing with rapidity between the high cliffs and vast stones that oppose its progress, descends into a valley a few miles east of Buxedwar, from whence it proceeds to Bengal, where, under the name of Gudadhar, it joins the Brahmaputra not far from Rangamatty.—(*Turner, &c.*)

TEHREE (*or Teary*).—The capital of a petty Bondela chief, whose territories are situated on the north-western frontier of Bundelcund, fifty-one miles west from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 45′ N., lon. 78° 52′ E. The Tehree raja appears to have been an independent chief ever since the dissolution of the Mogul empire, never having been considered tributary to Sindia or any other more powerful state, although, like all other small principalities, liable to have contributions extorted by such marauders as possessed sufficient strength. About A.D. 1777, Raja Puchin Singh, the then reigning chief of Tehree, in a fit of furious mental derangement put the wife of the late Raja Suwunt Singh, his predecessor, to death. On recovering from his temporary phrenzy, being seized with remorse, he abdicated the throne and became a wandering mendicant. His pilgrimage was traced as far as Chitracole, after which he was never heard of. At present the villages belonging to the Tehree state are so intermixed with others, the property of adjacent chiefs, that it is impossible to discriminate them with any pretensions to accuracy. In 1812 his revenue was estimated at four lacks of rupees.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

TEJARAH.—A subdivision of the Agra province, which, from the notice taken of it by Abul Fazel, must in his time have been of considerable importance, but latterly it has almost lost its place in the maps, and is otherwise but little known.

TELLIAGURRY.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, twenty-three miles N.W. from Rajamahal; lat. 25° 15′ N., lon. 87° 37′ E. The hills here descend to the river, and collectively form the boundary between the old Mogul provinces of Bengal and Bahar. Sultan Shujah built here a fortress, which has been a considerable work, the two extremes being a mile from each other. The gates are of stone, but the houses within are built of brick. In 1810 an iron cannon of extreme rudeness still remained at the gate.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TELINGANA.—In the institutes of Acber this region is named Berar, but was only in part possessed by that sovereign. The Telingana language is the Andhra of Sanscrit authors, and the word Telinga is at once the name of a nation, of its language, and of the country in which it is spoken, where it is also named Trilinga, Teloogoo, and Tenoogoo. The Telinga language, formerly called the Kalinga, occupies the space to the eastward of the Maharatta, from near Ganjam, its northern, to within a few miles of Pulicat its southern boundary, with the intervention of a strip of territory where the Gond tongue is used.

The above space was divided into the Andhra and the Kalinga countries, the former to the north, the latter to the south of the Godavery, and the aggregate comprehended the five Northern Circars, a large portion of the Nizam's dominions, the districts of Cudapah and Bellary, and the northern portion of the lower Carnatic, besides Telinga families scattered over Dravida and the ancient Carnatic, now named Mysore. In a specimen of the Lord's Prayer, translated into this language, the missionaries traced fifteen words, used in the Bengalese, besides others from a Sanscrit source. At the era of the Mahomedan conquest the greater part of these united provinces seem to have been known to that people by the general designation of Telingana, and Warangol as the capital of the whole. By the English, and other Europeans, the Telingas were formerly called Gentoos, a name unknown to any Indian dialect. — (*Wilks, A. D. Campbell, Colebrooke, Rennell, &c.*)

Tellichery (*Talechari*).—A seaport town on the Malabar coast, 126 miles travelling distance from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 45′ N., lon. 75° 33′ E. This place was long the chief settlement on the coast of Malabar; but the East-India Company's commerce having been tranferred to Mahé in 1800, it has since considerably declined. The richest natives, however, still reside here, and the inhabitants are far more civilized than in other parts of the province. The grounds within the old English lines are highly cultivated, and the thriving state of the plantations on the sandy land shews that the whole is capable of improvement. Tellichery is the mart for the best sandal-wood brought from above the ghauts; and the cardamoms of Wynaad, which are mostly exported from hence, are reckoned the best on the coast.

In A.D. 1683 the presidency of Surat established a factory here for the purchase of pepper and cardamoms; and in 1708 the East-India Company obtained a grant of the fort of Tellichery from the Colastry or Cherical raja. During the reign of Tippoo, in consequence of his hostile policy, this settlement was supported at a great expense, and partook so little of the commerce of the country, that the Bombay government contemplated its relinquishment. In A.D. 1800 Tellichery, Mahé, and Darmapatam, formed a circle containing 4,481 houses. — (*F. Buchanan, Dirom, Duncan, &c.*)

Tello.—A town in the island of Celebes, formerly the capital of an independent principality; lat. 5° 5′ S., lon. 119° 30′ E. In A.D. 1677 the state of Tello was bounded on the north by the Coerees, two islands situated south of the river Maros; and to the south it reached as far as Fort Rotterdam. The princes of Goak and Tello were both called kings of Macassar, although each is a separate state, deriving their names from their capitals. Both, however, have long been under the power of the Dutch.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, &c.*)

Tenasserim.—This province is bounded on the west by the great Siamese range of mountains, which are flanked by parallel ridges running north and south, and gradually declining in height as they approach the plains. The intervening valleys are narrow, and serve as outlets to the mountain streams, flowing S.S.W. until they reach the sea. Some of the highest peaks in the central chain behind the British territories have been estimated at 5,000 feet, and the connecting hills and ridges at about 3,000 feet in height; but interruptions in the continuity of the chain occur in various parts, increasing as the south is approached. The breadth of the belt formed by the parallel ranges has been computed at thirty miles, but no actual survey has yet taken place. In the latitudes of Mergui and Junk Ceylon the breadth decreases, and near the place last-mentioned the hills reach within eight miles of the sea. The whole

of this mountainous belt is covered with jungle, almost impenetrable except by breaks in the chain and by the dry beds of torrents, and inhabited by wild beasts, and a few Karian tribes scarcely less wild. Further east beyond this natural boundary lie several important and fertile Siamese provinces, through which flow streams navigable for boats and small prows.

On the north Tenasserim Proper is bounded by the Tavoy province; on the south it is separated from the Siamese possessions on the sea-coast by a small stream about lat. 10° 35′ N., 430 miles sailing distance from Prince of Wales' Island; on the west Tenasserim is shut in from the violence of the S.W. monsoon by a chain of rocky islands named the Mergui archipelago. The Tenasserim river rises in the hills north-east of Tavoy, about lat. 15° 30′ N., and as far as the parallel of Tavoy town flows through a valley just wide enough to permit its passage, but it afterwards expands and becomes navigable, having been ascended by the Thetis cruizer as high as old Tenasserim, with ample depth of water. According to native accounts it is navigable for small boats and canoes 100 miles above its mouth. From old Tenasserim a small branch diverges towards the gulf of Siam, which formerly much facilitated the inroads of the Siamese. This tract along the sea coast is much intersected by creeks and rivers.

Almost the whole of this province is at present covered by forest trees and jungle, only some spots of land being cultivated in the immediate vicinity of Mergui, and along the banks of the Tenasserim river, and a few occasional patches amidst the forest. Rice is raised on the island of Nauple, and other insulated spots in front of Mergui; but the total produce in 1825 was not adequate to the supply even of its own scanty population. The rock formation here is sand-stone, and the soil a red clay, every where indicative of sterility.

Tin is abundant, and with a sufficient number of labourers a great quantity may be obtained; birds'-nests from the sea-coast and islands, sapan-wood from the interior, lignum aloes, an inferior description of sandal-wood, and many other woods, barks, drugs, resins and balsams, not yet examined, rattans, dammer, sticklac, timber for ship-building and cabinet-work, but no teak, are the remaining articles of commercial value.

The original inhabitants of Tenasserim are supposed to have been a distinct race from the neighbouring nations; but their long subjection to the Burmese and Siamese has so completely obliterated all peculiarities, that they are not now to be distinguished from the Burmese, whose costume, manners, laws, and religion, they have adopted. The Karians are not numerous, and only to be found above old Tenasserim in small scattered tribes. Prior to the British conquest in 1824, the whole population of the province appears to have congregated in and around the town of Mergui; the modern capital, Tenasserim having been destroyed by the Siamese, who during the war carried off 1,000 of the inhabitants into slavery, but were compelled subsequently to restore most of them by the interference of the British. In A.D. 1825 the town of Mergui and scattered hamlets in its vicinity were supposed to contain about 1,580 houses, and 8,000 persons. What follows, although placed under the head of Tenasserim, applies to the British conquests south of Rangoon collectively, viz. Martaban, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and the Mergui isles.

At Martaban the south-west monsoon and the rains set in together about the beginning of May, but they are severest in June, July, and August. In September the winds and rains moderate; in October they become still less, and in the beginning of November entirely cease, after which the cold season sets in, which continues until the end of February, the climate in many respects greatly

resembling that of Bengal. In a country so abundantly supplied with moisture, and so completely covered with a most luxuriant vegetation, hot winds are unknown; on the sea-coast the regular land and sea winds prevail. The geological formation is almost universally granite; that of the islands granite, with an occasional intermixture of lime and sand-stone.

The present inhabitants consist principally of Peguers or Taliens, Burmese, Carians, Taoungzee, Cholomé, and Pasa; but the first class are much the most numerous, the emigrants from Pegu up to June 1827 exceeding 20,000 persons. If peopled like Hindostan, the space is capable of supporting 4,700,000. Many Chinese settlers may be expected, when we consider the extraordinary influx of that nation similarly or less favourably situated. Borneo, Java, Banca, and several other islands, the peninsula of Malacca, Siam, Rhio, Singapoor, Penang, &c. all possess thousands of that industrious people, who will no doubt resort to those provinces, where they will find their property and persons protected. At present there is no inequality of property or rank, because wealth was rarely permitted to be either accumulated or inherited. At present the revenues arise from the land-tax, poll-tax, salt duties, fisheries, mines, monopolies, customs, transit, market and excise duties, and coinage. In 1827 the total amount of the revenues amounted to only 42,770 rupees, but were in ten years to exceed fifteen lacks of rupees.

The institution of inland commercial marts and fairs, to accommodate the Siamese, Shans, and other distant nations, was contemplated, more especially at a post called Prau Thounghy, or the three pagodas, on the frontiers of Siam, to which sticklac of a superior quality may be brought from Laos, and raw silk from China. The teak forests of Martaban have been ascertained to be of great extent, and to contain timber of the very best quality. The best ports are Amherst, Tavoy, and Mergui, at all of which ship-building may be advantageously carried on. The distance between the mouths of the Rangoon and Martaban rivers is only seventy miles, and this quarter of the Burmese territories are particularly vulnerable.—(*Crawfurd, Lieut. Low, Fullerton, Maingy, &c.*)

TENASSERIM RIVER.—This river is said to have its source in the eastern hills, whence it flows south-westward until it joins the sea by two mouths at Mergui. It is navigable for boats above 100 miles from its debouchure, and above thirty miles for vessels of small burthen.—(*Crawfurd, Low, &c.*)

TENGALE.—A town on the sea-coast of Ceylon, division of Negampatoo, situated near the south-eastern extremity, having a small bay, and tolerably good anchoring ground; lat. 6° 8′ N., lon. 80° 48′ E. This place is so situated that both monsoons are land winds, and is remarkable for droughts; in one instance twelve months elapsed without the fall of a single drop of rain.—(*Davy, &c.*)

TENGAVAPATAM.—A small town in the Travancore province, thirty miles W.N.W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 16′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

TERNATE ISLE (*Ternati*).—One of the small Moluccas, about twenty-five miles in circumference, situated on the west coast of Gilolo; lat. 50° N., lon. 127° 20′ E. The Dutch province of Ternate includes Tidore, Motir, Machian, and Batchian, which are properly the Moluccas, being the original places of growth of the finer spices. Larger nutmegs are still found in the woods of Ternate than any produced in Banda. Although all efficient power has long been possessed by the officers of the Dutch establishment, a native sovereign, the sultan of Ternate, has continued to exercise certain functions of royalty over the natives of the island. In 1774 his nominal dominions comprehended the greatest portion of the north of Gilolo, and also a great part

of the north-east of Celebes, where are the Dutch settlements of Manado and Goruntolu. Sangir also belonged to him, and the neighbouring islands of Siao, Karakita, Tagulanda, Banca, and Tellusyani.

On this island, in 1775, there were three mosques for the Mahomedans, and one church for the Dutch, but none for the Portuguese, who had become as black as the natives. The country is divided into five districts, over which there are five chiefs, and also a captain laut or high admiral, who commands the sultan's prows. Besides these there is an officer who superintends the police. The Dutch settlers reside at Fort Orange, and consist of a governor and council, a shahbunder, and fiscal. In 1777 the Dutch establishment, civil and military, comprehended 847 persons, by whom the trade was in a great measure monopolized; the Chinese, however, always enjoyed considerable privileges. At that date no Chinese junk was permitted to visit Ternate direct from China, but they were allowed to trade to Macassar, which may be considered the western frontier of the Moluccas.

The first Mahomedan sovereign of Ternate is said to have reigned from 1466 to 1486. In 1521 it was visited by the Portuguese, who took formal possession, but they were expelled in 1530. In 1579 it was touched at by Sir Francis Drake, who according to the fashion of the day, took possession of it in the name of Queen Elizabeth. The Portuguese repossessed it, and along with the kingdom of Portugal it devolved to the Spaniards, who lost Ternate in 1606, but retained a footing in the Moluccas until 1663. In 1680 the Dutch compelled the sultan of Ternate to become tributary to them, and the princes of the other Moluccas were subsequently so thoroughly subdued, that in 1778 the kings of Tidore and Batchian were dethroned and exiled to Batavia. With the Dutch it remained until the revolutionary war, when it was twice captured by the British, but ultimately restored at the peace of 1814.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, Forrest, &c.*)

TERRIANI (*Turyani, named also Terraie*).—The word Turyani properly signifies low marshy land that is navigable, the term implying a country of boats; but by the Nepaulese the word is applied to that portion of their kingdom situated on the great plain of Hindostan. The British section of the Terriani is principally comprehended in the Sarun district and is a flat uninteresting tract, in some parts bare of trees, but generally covered with a rank vegetation. Rice is the chief produce, and herds of cattle are scattered over the country, which in the dry season abounds with game, but during the rains these are obliged to seek shelter on the higher grounds. Such is this tract to the edge of the forest that borders the base of the mountains from which wild elephants issue during the night, and commit depredations on the neighbouring rice fields.

The Nepaulese Terriani is a belt of much greater extent, and in general about twenty miles in breadth. In this space there are a few small hills scattered, and much poor land, overgrown with trees and bushes of little value; but there is also a very large proportion of rich land, where the soil is much better than in the contiguous parts of the British territory, but being less cultivated, abounds more with wild beasts, such as elephants and rhinoceroses. The breed of the first is of an inferior description, and in general has one of one of its feet much lengthened, which gives it an unseemly appearance. Tigers are not so numerous as might have been expected; black bears of a large size are troublesome; wild hogs, hog-deer, hares, foxes, and jackals, are to be found in abundance. In some parts of the Terraie north of Rohilcund the climate is so unhealthy, that not only the monkeys, but every thing that has the breath of life, instinctively deserts them from the beginning of April until October,

In the waste lands of the Nepaulese Terriani, the most common trees are the palas (*erythinia monosperma*) and the simul (*bombax heptaphyllum*), but by far the greater proportion of these wastes is covered with long grass or reeds, which are burned once a year, in order to clear the country and improve the pasture. Owing to the moisture and coolness of the air, the fields at all seasons preserve some verdure; but the grass seems to be of a very bad quality, as the cattle, although plentifully supplied, are to the last degree wretched. The whole tract is intersected with numerous small streams, which not only answer the purposes of irrigation, but when swollen by the rains become navigable, and enable the farmer to send down the produce of his fields to a distant market, as well as to float down the valuable timber that skirts the lower ranges of the hills.

Before the Nepaulese conquests in this quarter, the petty rajas who governed its different portions were so much afraid of their neighbours that they did not promote the cultivation of this low country, but on the contrary rather encouraged the extension of the woods, contenting themselves with its produce in elephants, timber, and pasture. Even then, however, many rich spots were occupied, and productive, but they were so completely buried among the jungle as to escape observation. The Nepaulese being more confident in their own strength, have cleared much land, although a great deal still remains to be done. Even now they export a great quantity of grain, and were property more secure, the territory is capable of yielding considerable resources. The climate is considerably cooler and moister than in the vicinity of Patna, and the hot winds, according to report, are almost a month later. About the first of April, however, the country becomes very unhealthy, good water scarce, and until the setting in of the cold season the people are subject to fevers and disorders in the bowels, which by the natives of Nepaul are attributed to the ayul, or poisonous air, which many of them imagine proceeds from the breath of large serpents, supposed to inhabit the forests of the northern mountains. The existence of such serpents in any considerable number is worse than doubtful, and the unhealtiness of the climate may be accounted for from the quantity of vegetable putrefaction, stagnant water, and similar causes.

At the conclusion of hostilities in 1815 the Bengal government at first determined to insist on the entire cession of the Nepaulese Terriani or low lands; but the experience of a season's occupation proved them of little profit as to revenue and of extremely difficult management, while the climate was so destructive as to render the continuance of troops or civil officers for one half of the year utterly impracticable. As a politic act of conciliation therefore, the whole of the eastern Terriani from Goruckpoor to the Cosa was restored to the Nepaulese in lieu of certain pensions to the chief Gorkha leaders; and the western, together with a very jungly pergunnah on the Goggra, was transferred to the king of Oude in extinction of one of the two crores of rupees, obtained from him during the war.—(*F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

TESHOO LOOMBOO (*or Diggarcheh*).—A town in Tibet, the head-quarters of the Teshoo Lama, who is protected and worshipped by the Chinese emperors of the present dynasty; lat. 29° 7′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E., 180 miles north from the frontiers of the Rungpoor district in Bengal.

Teshoo Loomboo, or Lubrong, is properly a large monastery, consisting of 300 or 400 houses, the habitations of the Gylongs (Buddhist monks), besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff. Its buildings are all of stone, and none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and covered with a parapet rising considerably above the roof, composed of heath and brushwood. The fortress of Shiggatzee

Jeung stands on a prominent ridge of rock, and commands the pass. From hence there are roads to Bootan and Bengal, to Lahore and Cashmere, to the mines of lead, cinnabar, copper, and gold, by Tingri to Nepaul, to Lassa, and to China. The distance from hence to Catmandoo by the marching road is estimated at 400 miles. In 1780 the journey of the deceased Lama's attendants from Pekin to Teshoo Loomboo, occupied seven months and eight days. On the north is the territory of Taranath Lama, bordering on Russia and Siberia, whose influence more especially extends over the Kelmauks, or hordes of Calmuck Tartars.

The plain of Teshoo Loomboo is perfectly level, and is encompassed on all sides by high rocky hills. Its direction is north and south, and its extreme length fifteen miles; its southern extremity in breadth, from east to west, is five or six miles. The river Panumchieu, flowing from the south, intersects it, and at a small distance to the north joins the Sanpoo. The hills are of a rocky nature, of the colour of rusty iron, and are easily shivered by the weather into little cubical pieces, small enough to be moved about by the wind. The rock of Teshoo Loomboo is by far the loftiest of all that are in its neighbourhood, and commands an extensive view, but no striking traces of population are to be discovered, the natives crowding into the hollow recesses. From the north side the Sanpoo or Erechoomboo is visible, flowing in a widely extended bed through many winding channels, forming a multitude of islands. Its principal channel is described as being narrow, deep, and never fordable.

In 1783, when visited by Captain Turner, there were reckoned on the establishment of the monastery at Teshoo Loomboo no less than 3,700 Gylongs for the performance of daily prayer in the goomba or temple. Four Lamas chosen from among them superintend and direct their religious ceremonies. Their stated periods of devotion are the rising of the sun, noon, and sunset. Youths intended for the service of the monastery are received into it at the age of eight or ten years. On admission they are enjoined sobriety, forego the society of women, and confine themselves to the severe discipline of the cloister. There are also a considerable number of nunneries, the regulations of which are equally strict, and an extensive establishment under the direction of the monastery for the manufacture of images. At the capital 300 Hindoo Gossains and Sanyassies are daily fed by the bounty of the Lama. The extent of his dominions, and the details of his government are little known; but the system certainly exhibits a hierarchy of long duration, and of some practical benefit to society. The Gylongs or monks, having devoted themselves to the duties of religion, obtain a larger portion of respect from their countrymen who follow worldly occupations. Being attached by a common bond of union, the one portion to labour and the other to pray, they enjoy in peace and harmony the bounties of nature, and before the Gorkha inroad in 1790 found it unnecessary to maintain a single armed man, either to defend their territory or to assert their rights. Since that unjust aggression the bonds of their dependence on the Chinese have been tightened; and in 1816 the police of the town of Diggarchch or Teshoo Loomboo was under the charge of a resident Zoongpoon, acting under the Tazin and judicial authorities at Lassa.—(*Capt. Turner, General Kirkpatrick, Abdul Russool, &c.*)

THAKACOTE.—This is the chief mart of trade between that portion of Northern Hindostan adjacent to the course of the Gunduck river and Tibet, the goods being mostly conveyed by hill-porters, or on the backs of sheep. Lat. 29°6' N., lon. 83°0' E. According to native accounts the Gunduck is no where fordable below this place, being crossed either on wooden bridges, or on swinging bridges of ropes and rattans. This place, said

to contain 1,000 houses, is situated in a fine valley, which has been compared with that of Nepaul, but is not so wide. At a short distance to the south-west, the white mountain Dhawalaghiri rears its enormous head, estimated to be 26,462 feet above the level of the sea.

THAKAM (*tha, place, kham, ferry*).—A river of the Malay peninsula, which flows through the isthmus of Kraw, and joins the sea by two channels in the gulf of Siam. At the mouth of the most northern stands a town named Thathog, which forms the northern boundary of the Ligore raja's government. The southern channel is called the Bandon, which name is sometimes given to the whole. This is known to be a considerable stream which leads to Perniouin, three day's journey from Phoonga near Junk Ceylon. There are many islands at the mouth of the Bandon branch, named by Horsburgh and Valentyn, the Larchin Isles.—(*Capt. Burney, &c.*)

THAKIL PEAK.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, thirty-two miles E.S.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 31′ N., lon. 80° 12′ E.; 8,221 feet above the level of the sea.

THAKOOR GOOMBA.—A town in Tibet, the residence of the Saymrupa Lama, ninety miles N.E. from Catmandoo; lat 28° 28′ N., lon. 86° 8′ E.

THANCOTE.—A small town in Nepaul, seven miles west of Catmandoo, situated on a rocky eminence at the south-west corner of the Nepaulese valley, in a district separated from the others of the plain by a ridge of low hills, on the most conspicuous part of which stands Kirthipoor; lat. 27° 41′ N., lon. 84° 54′ E.

THANUSAR.—An ancient town and modern Seik chiefship in the province of Delhi, eighty-three miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 55′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E. By Abul Fazel in A.D. 1582 it is described as follows. "Thanesur is held sacred by the Hindoos. The river Sursuti (Sereswati), to which the Hindoos pay great adoration, runs past it. In the vicinity is a lake named Khooket, to which pilgrims come from afar to worship and bestow charity. This was the scene of the war of the Mahabharat. Out of the immense multitude of forces on the one side, and the troops of Judhishteer on the other, only twelve persons survived the slaughter, of which number four were of the army of Doorjodhen, namely, Keeracharij, a Brahmin, who had been preceptor to the Cooroos and Pandoos; 2. Ashotaman, who had exercised the same office; 3. Keerut, a Brahman of the Jadown tribe; 4. Sujey, who drove the chariot of Driterashter. The other eight survivors were of the Pandoo army, *viz.* the five Pandoo brothers; Sateck, of the Jadown tribe; Hugtash, who was Doorjodhen's brother by another mother; and Krishna, whose fame is so universal as to render any account of him unnecessary. Near to this place stood the ancient city of Hustinapoor."

When taken by Mahmood of Ghizni in A.D. 1011 Thanusar was still the capital of a powerful kingdom. At present it is the next town in importance to Pattiallah in the Sirhind district, and is still held in high veneration by the Hindoos. The inhabitants of the surrounding country are chiefly Jauts, many of whom have become Seiks, and there are also a few Rajpoots of low caste. In 1822 the chiefship of Thanusar was disputed between Punjab Singh, the full brother, and Koonwur, the widow of the deceased chief Goolab Singh. The first was acknowledged by the British government, care being taken to secure an adequate provision for Koonwar and the other widows.—(*Sir John Malcolm, George Thomas, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

THAUMPE (*named Tongsu by the Burmese*).—A district of India beyond the Ganges, which is said to lie about twenty-five or thirty days' journey N.N.E. of Tongho in Pegu,

near the borders of Laos and northern Siam. The chief town bearing the name of the district, is situated about forty miles from the hills somewhere near to lat. 19° N. According to native report, for it never has been visited by any European, it contains about 5,000 inhabitants, and is defended by a stockade.

This country is inhabited by the Plau, a distinct race, not only from the Burmese and Siamese, but from the adjacent tribes, resembling much more the Chinese than any other people. They are probably some branch of the great Shan or Lao tribe, which under different appellations appears to occupy the central and northern parts of India beyond the Ganges, and the word Plau appears to be some modification of the old designation Lao or Laos of the Portuguese. They are described as an unwarlike race, much addicted to agriculture and commerce, and of course tyrannized over by their neighbours the Burmese and Siamese. They are Buddhists in religion, yet burn their dead. Their marriage feasts consists of poultry, buffaloe and cow beef, venison, monkeys' flesh, and large rats; their drink an ardent spirit distilled from rice.

The district of Thaumpé is governed by a Burmese chief who resides in the capital. The country is flat, tolerably clear, and well adapted for the rice cultivation, cattle, small horses and buffaloes are employed in agriculture. Cotton is raised, the tea-plant cultivated and the leaves pickled, indigo is quite common, blue being the prevalent colour, stick-lac is procured in the jungles, and the silk-worm reared. The forests contain many valuable trees, but the absence of navigable rivers prevents this source of traffic being made available. Gold is found in the mountain streams, iron is abundant and manufactured, tin, after disappearing in the north of Tavoy, again presents itself here in considerable quantities. The most productive mines are those of lead, and it is from hence that the Burmese armies are wholly supplied with that metal. The Plau send an annual caravan to Rangoon from whence they bring back salt, salt-fish, areca, woollens, piece-goods, crockery, and spices, in exchange for their own commodities. A commercial intercourse is also maintained between Thaumpe and China; from whence spices, silks, cottons, woollens, paint, paper, and cutlery, taking back the produce of the Plau country. The merchandize is transported on horses and asses, and the caravans are said frequently to muster above a thousand persons well provided with arms.—(*Public Journals, Lieut. Low, &c.*)

THEOG.—A town in Northern Hindostan, nineteen miles north from the Chour station; lat. 31° 7′ N., lon. 77° 24′ E.

THERAUD.—A town and district in on the north-western frontier of the Gujerat province; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 71° 32′ E. The pergunnah of Theraud is bounded on the north by *Marwar*, Sanjore being thirty miles N.N.E. from the town. On the west it is bounded closely by Wow, which is only twelve miles distant. To the south it has Babouc, thirty miles distant, and on the east the district of Deesa, in which direction its territory extends forty miles. It is remarkable that the portion of the Theraudri next the Runn is best supplied with water, the tanks and wells at Sorregaum, Beenap, Wow, Golegaum, and Bookua being abundant, of an excellent quality, and found only a few feet below the surface, yet they are all within eight miles of that salt morass. At the town of Theraud water is found about sixty yards below the surface, but it is not always of a good quality, and the wells from which the neighbouring villages are supplied are frequently brackish. This scarcity of water prevents the cultivation of vegetables, of which, with the exception of onions brought from Rahdunpoor, Theraud is destitute.

In 1820 engagements were entered into with the British government by

Hur Ohanjee, the chief of Theraud, Hudbanjee Waghela of Morewarra, Omer Khan Jut of Waryee, and Poongajee of Deodhur, all of whose territories had been ravaged and depopulated by troops from Joudpoor, by famine, and by Coolies and Khozas. In 1809 the town of Theraud contained 2,700 houses, 300 of which were inhabited by Banyans; the remainder by Coolies, Rajpoots, and Sindeans. At the above date the military force consisted of 1,200 horse and 500 foot; in 1820 it was reduced to 28 horse and 405 foot, and the revenue to 12,000 rupees per annum.—(*Macmurdo, Miles, &c.*)

THIAGUR.—A town in the Carnatic, fifty-two miles W.S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 42′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E. During the Carnatic wars of last century this was a strong place, and sustained several sieges.

THILOUTA.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, beautifully situated on the west bank of the river Soane, about nineteen miles N.N.E. from the fortress of Rhotas, and ninety-six S.S.W. from Patna. The vicinity of this place is much embellished with groves of trees, and several small Mahomedan tombs of free-stone in a pleasing style of architecture.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TIBET

(*or Southern Tartary*).

The limits of this extensive region have never been accurately defined, but for general purposes it may be considered as comprehending all the tract of country from the eastern boundaries of Cashmere, in lon. 74° E. to the frontiers of China, about lon. 100° E., slanting south along the line of the Himalaya, from lat. 37° N. to lat. 28° N. In length from east to west it may be estimated at 1,300 miles; but its breadth from south to north cannot be distinguished, the demarcation in that direction being lost in the vast Tartarean plain. By the natives of Hindostan the tract of country adjacent to and on both sides of the snowy peaks is termed Bhote (Bhota in Sanscrit) and the inhabitants Bhoteas; nor does it appear that the name of Tibet is any where in general use to designate the province, according to the European acceptation of the word. At present the whole territory (with the exception of Ladack) is nominally or really subject to the Chinese; and it is the portion of Tibet more immediately governed by the viceroy of Lassa that the following general description chiefly refers. The principal modern territorial subdivisions commencing with Lassa, the seat of the Dalai, or grand Lama.

1. Lassa
2. Teshoo Loomboo
3. The Undes
4. Lahdack.

But between the two first and the two last a great expanse of unexplored country intervenes. According to the deba of Taclacote's information, the orders of the emperor of China reach Taclacote on the British frontier (almost due north of Lucknow) by the way of Tansieu, Lassa, Tuzon, and Gurdon, the expresses being carried by horsemen, of whom there are relays on the road. From Pekin to Lassa, occupies forty-five days; from thence to Gurdon, fifteen days; and lastly to Taclacote, by a single horseman, six days, making a total of sixty-six days; but the time employed between the two last is scarcely reconcileable with their relative positions. In 1816 the deba abovementioned, although a functionary under the emperor, could not recognize Pekin; China he called Gerren, and never had heard of the word Tibet.

This is an extensive plateau of great altitude, being part of the elevated table-land that gives rise not only to many great rivers of India and China, but also to those of Northern Tartary, or Siberia. The Indus and Sutuleje are known to have their sources in this elevated region; but the river which more peculiarly appertains to Tibet is the Sanpoo, respecting which further informatio

is extremely desirable. The Cailas and Himalaya both belong to Tibet, and contain between them the sacred lakes of Manasarovara and Rawan's Hrad. About the twenty-eighth degree of north latitude the Himalaya marks the boundary between Tibet and Bootan, and the summit of Chamalari is probably the highest land in this direction, as from thence the rivers begin to flow north. Little is known regarding the interior of Tibet; but it is supposed to consist of extensive stony or sandy plains, diversified by mountains of moderate height, and by pastures traversed by inconsiderable streams, which generally lose themselves in salt lakes or morasses. According to Chinese documents, the principal rivers of Tibet are the Sanpoo and the Mounchoo, which last rises in some mountains, about ninety miles E. by S. from Teshoo Loomboo, whence it runs almost parallel within but eighty miles south of the Sanpoo, which it is supposed afterwards to join. The river Galdjao flows past Lassa, a few miles to the south, and afterwards falls into the Sanpoo with a rapid current.

In the temperature of the seasons a remarkable uniformity prevails in this (the Lassa) quarter, both in their periodical duration and return, the same division nearly taking place as in Bengal. The spring is from March to May, with a variable atmosphere, heat, thunder storms, and occasional showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains swell the rivers. From October to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured by fogs or clouds. For three months of this period a degree of cold is felt, far greater, probably, than is experienced even in northern Europe. Its extreme severity is more particularly confined to the southern boundary of Tibet, near the elevated range of mountains which separate it from Nepaul, Bootan, and Assam. The summits of these are covered at all seasons of the year with snow, and their vicinity is remarkable at all times for the dryness of the winds. Here meat and fish are preserved during winter in a frozen state, as in Russia. Snow, however, is not an indication of excessive cold, as at Melville Island, in lat. 75° N., none falls during the whole winter, and the frosty spiculæ that floated in the air never lay deeper on the ground than a few inches. At Tuena, in Tibet, on the 16th September 1783, at six in the morning, the thermometer stood below the freezing point. The aridity of the atmosphere also in Tibet is very remarkable, and operates an effect similar to that of the scorching winds that prevail over some parts of Hindostan. Vegetation is frequently dried to brittleness, and every plant may be rubbed to dust between the fingers.

When first viewed, Tibet strikes the stranger as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and apparently in a great measure not susceptible of cultivation, exhibiting only low rocky hills or extensive plains, unfavourable to vegetation. On account of the severity of the climate, the inhabitants are obliged to seek for shelter in the valleys and hollows. From Phari to Nainee, on the road leading from Bootan to Teshoo Loomboo, a distance of nearly fifty miles, the country is very little removed in aspect, culture, and population from a desert. The hills are bare, and composed of a stiff, dry, mouldering rock, which splits and shivers with the frost. The usual crops are barley, coarse peas, and wheat, the first forming much the largest proportion of the whole. No rice is cultivated, and wheat is so scarce, that it never falls to the lot of the poorer classes. Coarse peas are given to horses and mules, and from barley the shraub (spirit, or whiskey) is distilled, which is so favourite a beverage with all ranks in Tibet. Turnips and radishes are the only garden vegetables, and peaches and bynes the only fruits. It is the practice of the cultivators to flood the low lands on the approach of winter with water, which freezing,

covers their surface with a sheet of ice, and thus preserves the scanty soil on their surface from the violence of the winds.

Although the surface of the country is so unpromising, its interior in some degree compensates by the richness of its mineral stores; and on the surface of this dry and elevated region the production of nitre is abundant and spontaneous. Gold is found in many parts, and often uncommonly pure. It is collected both from mines and the beds of rivers, attached to small pieces of stone; at other times it is found in large masses, lumps, and irregular veins. The gold mines are the exclusive property of the government, which, according to Abdul Russool, only permits one, situated eighteen munzils, or days' journey, west of Lassa, and within three munzils of a place named Lunchic, to be worked by contract on the following conditions: each individual applying for the privilege must come under an engagement to deliver to the sovereign six maashas of gold bullion, each maasha being rather more in weight than the tenth of a rupee, for which consideration he obtains permission to work the mine for three or four months. Whatever be the result of his labour he is obliged to deliver six maashas to the government; but any surplus he reserves to himself, except when he discovers any single mass weighing more than seven tolahs, which (according to the authority above quoted) he is required to deposit again in the mine to prevent its exhaustion. The right of mining is granted only to such a number of persons as shall be sufficient, by the delivery of six maashes each, to yield the government a total annual amount of five maunds, or about 400 pounds of pure bullion. Rock salt is found every where, but there is said to be no mines either of silver or iron. Cinnabar, containing a large proportion of quicksilver, is a production of Tibet, and might be advantageously extracted by distillation if fuel were more plentiful; but unfortunately it is remarkably scarce, the only substitute for firewood being the dried dung of animals. Thus situated, and in so rigorous a climate, the most valuable discovery for the frozen inhabitants of Tibet would be that of a coal mine. It is said that in some parts of China, bordering on Tibet, coal is found, and used as a fuel.

In Tibet a great superabundance of animal life is found, which is not the case in Bootan, where, except domesticated quadrupeds, there are no others, and besides pheasants almost no game. In Tibet, on the contrary, the variety and quantity of wild fowl, game, beasts of prey, flocks, droves and herds, are astonishing, and not to have been expected in so inhospitable a climate. Among the most remarkable animals is the yak or bushy-tail bull. In size they resemble the English cattle, and are covered all over with a thick coat of long hair. There is a great variety of colour among them, but white and black are the most prevalent. Although not large boned they seem of great bulk, owing to the profuse thickness of their coat. These cattle are pastured in the coldest parts of Tibet, on the short herbage peculiar to the tops of mountains and bleak plains. They are found almost every where, but the lofty mountains that separate Tibet from Bootan are their favourite haunts. They are never employed in agriculture, but are useful as beasts of burthen, and from their hair ropes and tents are manufactured. Throughout Hindostan their tails are in great request as chowries, to drive away flies and musquetoes; they are likewise employed as ornamental furniture for horses and elephants. They supply an abundant quantity of rich milk, from which excellent butter is procured, and when uneasy they make a grunting noise. Besides the yaks there are small cattle like those of Bengal, mostly employed in agriculture.

Another native of Tibet is the musk deer, which is observed to delight in intense cold. This animal is about the size of a moderate sized hog,

which it resembles in the figure of its body. It has a small head, a thick and round hind quarter, no scut, and extremely delicate limbs. From the upper jaw two long curved tusks proceed, directed downwards. It is covered with a prodigious quantity of hair, between two and three inches long, which grows erect over the body, and seems to partake more of the nature of feathers or of porcupine's quills. The musk is a secretion formed in a little bag, or tumour, resembling a wen, situated at the navel, and is only found in the male. This animal is here reckoned the property of the state, and can only be hunted by permission of government. In that portion of Tibet adjoining the Himalaya and Calas mountains, the changes of temperature are so frequent and sudden, that the indigenous quadrupeds require very warm clothing to protect them from its vicissitudes, and we find that nature has accordingly very liberally supplied them with the fittest materials. The sheep has a very thick and heavy fleece; the goat has at the root of his long shaggy hair a very fine fur interspersed; while the cow has a substance of the same sort, so little inferior in warmth and softness, that it might almost prove a substitute for the fur of the celebrated shawl goat, another peculiar production of Tibet. These creatures are of various colours, black, white, a faint bluish tinge, and of a shade somewhat lighter than a fawn. They have strait horns, and are of a lower stature than the smallest sheep in England. The material used for the manufacture of shawls is of a light, firm texture, and grows next the skin, having over it a covering of long coarse hair, which preserves the softness of the interior coat. After repeated trials it has been found impossible to rear this species of goat in any other country.

The hare of Tibet has a fur of peculiar length and thickness, and even the dog has a coat of fur added to his usual covering of thick hair. The wild horse, the wild ass, and it is reported, the mule are found among the Tartarian mountains, but it is not known that they have any covering approaching the nature of fur. The Bharal (*ovis ammon*), partaking the nature both of a deer and a sheep, has at the base of its brittle hair a most beautiful brown fur. The domesticated horses are rather larger than the Bootan tanyans, and show considerable strength and speed. The mules are also large and strong, and are the ordinary carriage animals throughout Tibet. The dogs resemble the large Nepaul mastiff, and are both stout and ferocious. Immense flocks of sheep are pastured throughout the country, where mutton forms the principal animal food of the middling and higher ranks. They are also occasionally used as beasts of burthen, and flocks of them are seen in motion laden with grain and salt, each carrying from fifteen to twenty pounds. The skins of lambs are cured with the wool on, and constitute a valuable article of traffic. In order to obtain the skin in the highest degree of perfection, the dam is sometimes killed before her time of yeaning, which ensures a silky softness to the fleece, and renders it peculiarly fitted for the lining of vests, for which purpose it is in high estimation over all China and Tartary.

The principal intercourse of the Eastern Tibetians, commercial as well as political, is with China. There are two roads from Lassa to Pecheen, or Pekin, the Chinese capital. The first is the post road along which despatches are carried on horses, the journey to and from usually occupying two months, but expresses get over the space in twenty days; the other road is more circuitous, yet it is the one usually selected by merchants, being better adapted for the conveyance of baggage and merchandize. It is, however, much more tedious, and commonly employs eight months, but it is the route pursued by the annual caravan, which reaches Lassa in October, and sets out on its return to China in June. The caravan from China to Lassa in October usually comprehends an aggregate of 500 or

600 men, bringing goods, on cattle, mules, and in some instances on horses. The principal imports to Lassa in 1814 were tea in large quantities; cocheen, a Chinese silk of coarse texture; khaduk, another coarse Chinese silk; various kinds of coarse cloths used for making tents, &c.; European broadcloth to a small amount; various kinds of silk; silver bullion in lumps, some weighing 166 rupees, others smaller; a little China-ware; pearls and coral; besides European cutlery and other miscellaneous articles. According to Abdul Russool, by a regulation of the Chinese government it is required, that the amount of silver bullion sent to Lassa by the caravan, for the payment of the Chinese troops stationed there, for the salaries of the tazin, viziers, and other contingencies, be received by the Chinese merchants in payment for the tea sold at Lassa and carried back to China, which appears a most cumbrous arrangement. The duties on exports from China to Lassa are collected before their departure from Pekin. No government escort attends the caravan to Lassa, but the imperial government is responsible for its security, and makes good all losses sustained by theft or robbery during the transit.

From Lassa to Pekin the caravan carries puttoo (a coarse woollen cloth manufactured near Lassa, of which a great amount is annually exported to China); toos (a fine woollen cloth, resembling the looce of Hindostan; and manufactured in Tibet); gold bullion, the produce of the Tibet mines, mushroo (a silk manufacture of Benares); Hindostan chintzes, Allahabad cloths, imported from upper Hindostan, and otter skins, chanks or large shells, rhinoceros'-horns, and peacock feathers, all in the first instance imported from Bengal.

A commercial intercourse subsists between Tibet and Assam, transacted on the confines of the respective states. The exports to Assam consist principally of silver bullion and rock-salt; the imports from Assam are rice, coarse silk, cloths, iron, stick-lac, and a few other articles of small value; the whole estimated at one lack of rupees.

It does not appear that any articles, the original produce or manufacture of Nepaul, are imported to Tibet; the first-mentioned country serving merely as a route for the merchandize of Hindostan, consisting principally of mushroo cloth and kinkaubs manufactured at Benares; otter skins, pearls, coral, chanks or large shells, and buffaloe horns, from Bengal; Allahabad cloth, coarse sugar, and sweetmeats from Hindostan, and broad-cloth, telescopes, mirrors, &c. of European manufacture. The exports from Tibet to Nepaul are tea, China silk, and silver, all originally from China; and musk, cow tails, and sable furs, the produce of Tibet. A Nepaulese vakeel on the part of the Gorkha raja resides at Lassa, where he adjusts the litigations of his countrymen, and communicates in political affairs with the Chinese functionaries. It is conjecturedthat there are from two to three thousand natives of the countries subject to Nepaul constantly residing in Lassa, where they act as gold and silversmiths, and retail traders in puttoo, a coarse woollen cloth manufactured at Logha, a small village in the neighbourhood of Lassa. The Tibetians entertain but an indifferent opinion of the Nepaulese as a nation, considering them turbulent, ambitious, and encroaching neighbours.

The natives of Cashmere established with their families at Lassa are computed at 150 persons, who carry on a considerable trade between that capital and their native country, from whence they import shawls, numdee, a very thick woollen cloth, saffron, and dried fruit. The exports to Cashmere are silver bullion, and tea, of which last article to the value of 1,50,000 rupees, is annually exported from Lassa to Cashmere. The commerce between Bootan and Tibet is not open and unrestricted, being monopolized by the Deb raja, who is the principal merchant in his own dominions, from whence he sends a

caravan annually, attended by about fifty persons, who convey from thirty to forty thousand rupees worth of goods, consisting principally of the following articles, *viz.* a small quantity of rice, barchatte cloth, burraee cloth, pearls and coral, all originally from Bengal. The return articles carried to Bootan are gold bullion, chowries or cow tails, tea, khaduk, a coarse Chinese silk, and cocheen, a Chinese embossed silk of a coarse texture.

The Sikkim, or Damoo Jung raja, sends annually an offering of a small amount to the grand Lama, in return for which he receives a present from that incarnation, but the real commerce is of trivial importance. The intercourse, however, is quite direct, the route attended with little difficulty, and under existing circumstances is apparently the best that a European, bent on exploring the country, could follow. Hindostan receives the merchandize of Tibet through the intervening countries. The principal article is gold, but from the concealment practised it is impossible even to conjecture to what amount; the next in importance is tincal, then musk, and formerly some rock-salt. Tibet is not, as has been supposed, destitute of woollen fabrics suited to the severity of the climate, although in beauty they cannot compete with the manufactures of England. The best is named tooa, a fine kind of woollen cloth of a soft texture, manufactured at Lassa only, and capable of receiving a great variety of dyes. The next is named puttoo, which is a coarser cloth resembling English broad-cloth, and also fitted for the reception of any colour. Great quantities, especially of a red colour, are annually exported to China. According to Abdul Russool, the common currency of Tibet is a coin named tauk, about 4*s.* 6*d.* in value, either whole or cut into halves. It has the appearance of a silver coin resembling the sicca rupee, but it contains very little silver, the greater part of its composition being a mixture of brass and copper, so that it is rather difficult to account for its maintaining its reputed value. Some few sicca rupees are likewise current. As in Bootan, the first member of the state here is also the chief merchant, he is consequently invested with privileges above the common adventurer, who cannot enter into competition with him.

In 1816, according to Chinese authorities, the jurisdiction of their sovereign extended in a westerly direction five days' journey from Gurdon which is about 81° east longitude, but does not include Lahdack. The Chinese tazin who represents the emperor at Lassa, may be virtually considered the viceroy of the province in all matters of real importance, the bonds of subjugation to the celestial empire having evidently been drawn closer since Captain Turner travelled in 1783. The appointment of the four viziers, who form the state council, cannot take effect until presented to him, and be subsequently confirmed by the Chinese emperor. An appeal, *en dernier ressort*, may be made to him from all capital punishments, and he may order the naib or deputy to revise any legal proceedings. His rank is next to that of the Lama, and above the rajas; in real power he is greatly superior to both. Of late years it has become part of his official duty to make an annual tour to the Nepaul frontier, and on the opposite side as far as China, attended by one of the four viziers, to examine the state of the country. For the expences of this excursion he is allowed 5,000 tanks (or about 10,000 rupees), which he seldom or never expends, extorting such articles as he requires from the inhabitants. This exaction, however, is said to be the only oppression the Tibetians suffer from their foreign masters, whose government is otherwise mild and lenient.

Within this vast province there are said to be only 1,000 Chinese troops permanently stationed; of which 400 remained at Lassa, 200 at Gyanchee (twelve days' journey west of Lassa), 300 at Teshoo Loomboo (ten days' jour-

ney south-west of Lassa), and 200 at Tingry fort, twenty-two days' journey W.S.W. from Lassa, and not far from the northern frontier of Nepaul. The small numerical amount of this force is partly accounted for by the entire reliance of the Lassa government on that of China for protection against foreign invasion; but it also goes far to prove the mildness and popularity of the government. The discipline is very bad, but the soldiers are said individually to be strong and hardy. Their weapons are matchlocks and swords, the last worn on the right side. For the origin of this practice there is a tradition, that when Tamerlane conquered Tibet he treated the inhabitants with universal clemency, on condition that they would adopt some custom which should in future ages recal the memory of his predominance in these remote countries, in fulfilment of which the Tibet military have ever since fixed the sword on the right side.

The Lamas are the priests of the sect of Buddha in Tibet, and the territories adjacent, and are monks who, at least nominally, have forsaken the pleasures of this world; they reject *in toto* the doctrine of caste, and a proselyte of any nation may be admitted into their order. Those who consider themselves the adherents of Sakya Gamba, who came from India about the time of our Saviour, and has ever since resided at Lassa, where he enjoys perpetual youth; but, besides this individual, there are many other personages who are considered to be incarnations of different Buddhas. Of this description the most remarkable are the Dharma raja, or spiritual chief of Bootan; but still more celebrated and sacred is the Teshoo Lama, who resides at Diggarcheh, or Teshoo Loomboo, and is the spiritual guide of the Chinese emperor.

The grand or Dalai Lama, who resides at Lassa, is considered by his adherents to be an incarnation of the divinity in a human form, on the dissolution of which he enters a new one, after a stated period, and, becoming thus revealed to the inhabitants of the earth, resumes his dormant functions. According to Abdul Russool, who long resided at Lassa, the mode adopted for ascertaining the identity of the new Lama, is the following:

Immediately after the mortal frame of the defunct Lama has ceased to breathe, the religious orders commence a course of peculiar ceremonies, and all classes join in prayer and supplication for the restoration of their lost deity. These mysteries and invocations are prosecuted for a period of three years, during which period sums of money are distributed from the public treasury, and the priesthood fare sumptuously. On the expiration of three years the naib or raja, who is the second sacred dignitary in the state, proceeds to ascertain the time, place, and form of the Lama's impending incarnation. At Lassa the high priests always reside, whose hereditary office it is to reveal the migration of the Lama into his new form, and the raja calls on these hierophants, at the expiration of the above period, to depose severally what they know regarding the expected descent of the Lama. Being thus appealed to, the high priest, having carefully secluded himself from all external communication, drinks shraub (spirits) until he is intoxicated, and also performs various ceremonies; after which, while thus inspired, he reveals in writing the time, place, and form of the new incarnation. This document being sealed up with much care, a similar reference is made to the second high priest, who having gone through a similar process of inspiration, produces his revelation, after which a conclusive reference, accompanied by the like solemnities, is made to the third high priest. When thus obtained, these three declarations are opened, and, if their separate prognostics regarding the new incarnation do not exactly coincide, the whole are rejected, and fresh ceremonies instituted.

On the other hand, when the three revelations exactly correspond, they are forwarded to the Teshoo Lama, who after examination confirms them as true and inspired, or rejects them as false and spurious. If the first, he promulgates his own written annunciation of the Lama's re-appearance, declaring that in such a family and form, and at such a time, the Lama has been or will be incarnate. This instrument, marked with his seal, is sent to Lassa, where it receives the seals of the naibs of the four villages which compose the supreme council, and of all the principal functionaries; after which, as a matter of form, it is sent to the emperor of China for his confirmation. When the truth of the revelation has been recognized by that powerful monarch, it is made public, after which the nobles, priests, and chief officers of government repair to the spot where the Lama's incarnation has been predicated, and conduct him with much pomp to the capital, where, after being inaugurated, he takes up his abode in the palace or sanctuary, and enters on all the functions of his exalted station. According to Abdul Russool, he always appears as an only child, whose father is secretly immolated immediately after his son's recognition. It is said, however, that notwithstanding the fatal result above alluded to, that the honour of being father to the lama is eagerly sought after, and that there never has been an instance of a Lama's incarnation except in a rich family.

Such is the Lama's entrance; when his exit takes place, the body is exposed to the air until it becomes dry, after which it is enshrined in a case of highly wrought silver, representing a human figure in an upright attitude, and is thus deposited in the temple as an idol to be worshipped. The personal residence of the grand Lama is at Patela (about eight miles distant from the city of Lassa), where 170 priests of the first rank, devoted to prayer and the performance of never-ending ceremonies, reside with him in the palace. He is almost entirely secluded from the world, never appearing in public but once annually, when he repairs to the grand temple to perform public worship at the commencement of the new year, and corresponding with the Hooly of the Brahminical Hindoos. Even after his installation he rarely gives any attention to the temporal affairs of his state, and none at all to its internal economy; yet it is said he generally takes exclusive cognizance of all correspondence with foreign states. On the arrival of a despatch from a foreign government, it is carried directly to the Lama, who immediately summons his council, which after deliberation repairs to the residence of the Chinese tazin, where the consultation is renewed. If the subject be of extraordinary importance, a reference is made by the tazin to the emperor of China; if otherwise, the tazin and council determine on the reply, which is carried to the Lama to receive the impression of his seal.

The evils that might be expected to arise from this union of the priestly and regal dignities in the same person, are greatly neutralized by the complete seclusion of the grand Lama from temporal affairs, his authority not decending to any of the inferior sacerdotal functionaries, who have no concern whatever with the civil administration of the state. At the annual celebration, however, of the great festival above-mentioned an exception occurs, as for twenty-four days all the regular civil authorities continue suspended, their power being for that period of time transferred to the principal priests. In fact the Tibetian nation appears to be divided into two distinct and separate classes, those who carry on the business of the world, and those who hold intercourse with heaven. No interference of the laity ever interrupts the regulated duties of the clergy, yet it does not appear that the first are interdicted the study of any books held sacred by the Lamas. The ritual or ceremonial worship ap-

pears to differ materially from that of the Brahminical Hindoos; and from many of their prejudices, especially such as relate to the perplexing distinctions of caste, the natives of Tibet are wholly exempt. With the latter religion is all system and order. A sovereign Lama, immaculate, immortal, omnipresent, and omniscient, is placed at the summit of their fabric; the Hindoos, on the contrary, acknowledge no individual supreme authority. The Lama is esteemed the vicegerent of the deity, and he is also the centre of the civil government, which derives from his sanctity its chief influence and power. A regular gradation is also observed, from the grand Lama through the whole order of gylongs or monks to the youngest noviciate

The dress of the religious orders in this quarter of Asia is the regular habit of every attendant at court. It consists of a vest of woollen cloth, with sleeves of a deep garnet colour, and a large mantle either of the same or of a thinner texture, resembling a shawl, a sort of philibeg or kelt, and huge boots of bulgar hides, lined either with fur or cloth, complete their habiliments. The priests of the two sects are distinguished from each other by their dress, the red and the yellow cap; but the last is reckoned the most orthodox, having among its adherents the emperor of China. The grand or Dalai Lama of Lassa, the Teshoo Lama, and the Taranath Lama, preside as pontiffs over the yellow, which sect, as may be supposed, prevails over a large portion of Tibet. In like manner three Lamas preside over the red division, *viz.* Lam Rimbochay, Lam Nawangmamghi, and Lam Ghassatoo. These have their residence in Bootan, in separate monasteries; the principal of the red class in Tibet resides at Sakia. The president of a monastery is always styled Lama. Their religious buildings and monasteries are all adorned at each angle with the head of a lion, having bells hanging from his lower jaw, and the same ornament is equally conspicuous at every projection of the palace wall; yet the animal is not a native of the country.

According to Abdul Russool, the next person in rank at Lassa to the grand Lama is the raja, who is also termed the naib or deputy, and is the functionary who administers the temporal affairs of the Lama's dominions. This officer is also considered a being of mysterious origin, undergoing transmigrations similar to those of the supreme pontiff, and having his identity established by a similar process. Holding a character distinct from the sacerdotal, he may be regarded as the civil ruler of the state, limited on one hand by the influence of the Chinese tazin (or great man), and on the other by the permanent laws of the realm. It has been stated above that all political negociations with *foreign powers* come under the immediate cognizance of the grand Lama; but during the interregna occasioned by his frequent transmigrations, the conducting of these affairs, so far as concerns the local government of Tibet, devolves on the raja, next to whom in rank and authority is the council of the four shubbehs or viziers, which indeed may be considered the efficient government as far as refers to domestic affairs. The members are always native Tibetians, and when a vacancy occurs it is filled up by the raja in conjunction with the three surviving viziers; but the appointment must also be sanctioned by the Chinese tazin, and finally ratified by the emperor, with whom in reality it rests. Each vizier receives in virtue of his office a considerable jaghire from the Lama, besides a salary from the Chinese government, equal to about 1,500 rupees per annum, paid partly in silver and partly in cocheen silk. In A.D. 1816 the three existing viziers were Doorang Shubbeh, Shutteh Shubbeh, and Bangashar Shubbeh.

The gradation of the officers composing the local government of Tibet are the following: 1st. the raja; 2d. the council of the four shubbehs;

3d. two sheodebs, one for the country, and the other for the capital; 4th. the phompoms or officers of the exchequer; 5th. the bukhsy or commander of the army; 6th. the cutwal or chief police magistrate of the capital; 7th. the zoongpoons, who are magistrates, collectors of the revenue, and principal officers of the police similar to the tannadars of the British districts. These last are fixed at stations about thirty or forty miles from each other, and have establishments under them of fifteen men armed with swords and matchlocks; but there does not appear to be any regular establishment of preventive police throughout Tibet, nor indeed are criminal offences of such frequent occurrence as to call for it. To guard against petty thefts and burglaries, all ranks are enjoined to keep large and active dogs resembling the Nepaul mastiffs. The sheodebs above-mentioned appear to be judges of appeal in the civil and criminal departments. In extraordinary cases appeals are permitted to the court of the four viziers, to the raja, and finally to the Chinese tazin.

The written laws of Tibet are said to be of great antiquity, and to have a strong analogy to those of China, according to which in recent times they have certainly been modified. Robbery or dacoity is usually punished by perpetual banishment, except when attended with murder, in which case death is inflicted on the delinquent. Adultery is not classed among criminal offences, nor is its perpetration said to excite any irascible feelings in the minds of this torpid people. With respect to matrimony, a custom prevails in Tibet at once different from the modes of Europe, where one female becomes the wife of one man, and the opposite practice prevalent over the greater part of Asia, where one male exercises an uncontrolled despotism over many females. Here a custom still more preposterous is found, that of polyandria, one female associating with all the brothers of a family, without any restriction of age or numbers, the choice of the wife being the exclusive privilege of the elder brother. This arrangement differs considerably from the Nair customs on the coast of Malabar, but a similar practice is said to be followed by the bearer caste in the province of Orissa. In the ceremony of marriage the priests of Tibet have no share whatever, it being ratified and completed without their interference. The officers of state, as well as those who aspire to such distinctions, deem it a business ill suited with their dignities and duties to attend to the propagation of the species, which they entirely abandon to mere plebeians.

It is a general belief in Tibet that the arts and sciences had their origin in the holy city of Benares, which the inhabitants have been taught to consider as the source of both learning and religion; the Company's old provinces are consequently held in high estimation. The Gangetic provinces are called Anakhenk or Anonkhenk, and by the Tartars Enacac, which appellation has been extended so as to comprehend all India. It is asserted that the art of printing, that engine of good and evil, has from a very remote period been practised in Tibet, but so limited in its use by the influence of superstition, that not the slightest improvement has ever taken place. Copies of religious works are multiplied, not by moveable types, but by means of set forms in the nature of stereotype, which they impress on thin slips of paper of their own fabrication. The letters run from the left hand to the right, as in Europe. The printed and written character appropriated to works of learning and religion is styled in the language of Tibet the uchin; that of business and correspondence the umim. Their alphabet and character they acknowledge to be derived from the Sanscrit. When visited by Captain Turner in 1783 they were found acquainted with the existence of the satellites of Jupiter and the ring of Saturn.

According to tradition the ancient

promulgators of their faith proceeded from Benares, and after having advanced to the east over the empire of China, are said to have directed their course towards Europe. The funeral ceremonies performed by the Calmucks near the river Wolga in Russia, on the decease of their chief Lama, are nearly the same with those that take place at the funeral of a gylong in Bootan, on the borders of Bengal, which shows the prodigious diffusion of the Lama religion and Hindoo system. Their own instruction in science and religion the Tibetians refer to a period long prior to the existence of either in Europe; but Sir William Jones considered them as Hindoos who had engrafted the heresies of Buddha on their own mythological religion. The principal idol in their temples is Mahamuni, the Buddha of Hindostan, who is worshipped throughout the vast Tartarian plains under an infinite variety of names. Durga, Cali, Ganesa with his elephant head, Cartikeya (the Hindoo Mars), with many other Brahminical deities, have also a place in the pantheon of Tibet. The same places of popular esteem or religious resort are equally respected in Tibet and Bengal, Allahabad, Benares, Durjodun, Gaya, Saugor island, and Juggernauth being objects of devout pilgrimage; but the two last are deemed of pre-eminent sanctity, while Gaya, the birth-place of their great legislator, is only of secondary rank. Those who are unable to perform the pilgrimages in person, acquire a considerable degree of merit by having it performed by proxy. Within their own limits, the peak of Chumalari, probably the loftiest of the Himalaya, is greatly venerated both by the Buddhists and Brahminical Hindoos, who resort there as votaries to pay their adoration on its snow-clad summit. No satisfactory explanation has ever been given of the peculiar sanctity ascribed to this mountain; but it may be observed in general, that every singular phenomenon in nature becomes an object of worship to the Hindoos, whether it be a snowy mountain, a hot well, the source or conflux of a river, a lake, or a volcano.

The inhabitants of Tibet, differing from most other nations (with the exception of the Lamas), either totally neglect the bodies of their dead, or treat them in a manner that appears highly barbarous. The inferior Lamas are consumed by fire, and their ashes deposited in little metallic idols, but common subjects are treated with much less ceremony. Some are carried to lofty eminences, where after having been disjointed, and the limbs divided, they are left a prey to ravens, kites, and other carnivorous birds: but in the more populous tracts the dogs also participate in the repast.

In a region so extended as Tibet it is probable there exists a great variety of local manners, customs, and dialects; but only a small portion due north of Bootan having ever been penetrated to any depth by Europeans, the following remarks may be considered as chiefly applicable to this quarter. By Abdul Russool, who long resided among them, the subjects of the grand Lama are represented as an industrious, contented, mild race of men, sluggish in their intellect, and phlegmatic in their amorous propensities. A genuine Tibetian begins his day with the performance of a short worship at a public temple, every village possessing one, after which he pursues his peculiar occupation until the evening, which is devoted to recreation. Dancing is a favourite amusement, and is performed by all ranks and degrees, there being no professional dancers as in Hindostan. Infanticide, so much practised in China, is said to be unknown here; yet it is well ascertained that female infanticide is not unusual amongst the Bhooteas of the Himalaya. Marriage takes place about the age of twenty or twenty-two, and is usually arranged by the parents of the parties, the female bringing a dower. Abdul Russool asserts that the custom of one woman becoming the wife of all the brothers

still prevails in Tibet, in which he agrees with Captain Turner and other travellers, who seems satisfied of the fact, without endeavouring to explain what becomes of the redundant females. The original object of this disgusting practice was probably, in part, to prevent too rapid an increase of population in a barren land, and it has been falling into disuse about Lassa since the Chinese became predominant; but it must also be ascribed to the torpid habits and phlegmatic constitutions of the native Bhooteas and Tibetians, aggravated considerably by the multiplicity of their superstitious observances. Conjugal fidelity is consequently held in small estimation, a female being allowed to transfer her person and affections from one man to another without incurring the least reproach for making the first advances. Inheritance descends from the father to the oldest son, and in default of male issue, to the oldest brother or his sons; but should the deceased leave no sons, brothers, or brothers' sons, the property devolves to the wife and her daughters.

The natives of Tibet are accustomed to very warm clothing, the dress of the lower classes in summer being woollens of an inferior description, and in winter sheep or foxes skins, cured with the wool and fur on. About Lassa the joobhas or loose upper garments, and the trowsers of the higher classes, are made of European broad-cloth, Chinese satin, cocheen silk, and Hindostany mushroo or kinhaub. In winter the upper garment of the more affluent are lined with sable furs or otter skins; the poorer classes then wear puttoo cloth of home manufacture, lined with sheep, goat, and jackal skins, and always travelling on level ground, carry a weight of clothing that bids defiance to the most piercing winds. Both here and in Bootan the great men are peculiarly accustomed to travel in the dark. The houses of the peasantry are of a poor construction, and resemble brick-kilns. They are built of rough stones, heaped on each other, with three or four apertures to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded by a parapet wall two or three feet high. The chief food of the Tibetians is mutton, with various preparations of barley, mixed with tea and shraub, spirits or beer, and in their repasts they are said to give a uniform preference to undressed crude meat. Of this description mutton is almost their only food, and at their feasts the table is seen spread with raw joints of fresh mutton as well as boiled. The ordinances of their religion forbid their eating fowls, but eggs are an article of ordinary consumption. The higher ranks eat off china-ware, the lower off copper, and each individual about Lassa carries with him a knife and fork of European manufacture imported by the way of China.

The small-pox is a disorder as much dreaded by the natives of Tibet as the plague is in other parts of Asia. When it is known to exist in a village, the healthy hurry off, and leave the infected to chance and the natural course of the distemper. The use of mercury for the cure of the venereal disease appears to have been early introduced, and is administered with considerable skill. The great scarcity of timber not permitting the inhabitants to have boarded floors, they are troubled with cramps and rheumatic pains. On account of the high winds, sandy soil, and glare reflected from the snow and ground, the natives of Tibet are subject to sore eyes, and total loss of sight.

A white scarf is an invariable attendant on every intercourse of ceremony both in Bootan and Tibet. A similar piece of silk is always transmitted under cover with letters, which in England would prove an expensive compliment. This manufacture is of a thin texture, resembling that sort of China stuff called pelong, and is remarkable for the purity of its glossy whiteness. They are commonly damasked, and the sacred words, "*om mani paims om*" are usually near both ends, which terminate in a fringe.

The origin or meaning of this mode of intercourse has never been ascertained; it is of such moment, however, that the raja of Bootan once returned a letter to the resident at Rungpoor, which he had transmitted from the governor-general, unattended with this bulky incumbrance, to testify its authenticity.

The supreme control of the eastern provinces subordinate to the Chinese is vested in the deba, tazin or viceroy of Oochong (Lassa), and the deba of Gurdon possesses considerable power; but employments and honours are open to all classes of the people, there being no castes or privileged classes in Tibet. In 1816 an instance occured when an ironsmith was promoted from the anvil to the situation of shubbeh, or vizier of the great council. Wherever a deba resides a Lama is also appointed, the first being the civil and military governor, the last a pontiff, to whom the conducting of spiritual arrangements is delegated; and both authoties are frequently relieved or transferred from one station to another. All foreign merchants and others experience liberal treatment in Tibet, and where there are a considerable number of any particular nation collected, as Nepaulese and Cashmerians, they are permitted to adjust their own peculiar disputes by arbitration. This disposition to liberality, however, has in modern times been greatly counteracted by the proverbial jealousy of their Chinese superiors, who view all strangers, especially Europeans, and of all Europeans the British, with singular horror and suspicion. Neither does the sterile soil and rigid climate of Tibet present any attractions, for it at once restrains population within the narrowest bounds, and by the absence of exportable productions, prevents the extension of commerce; indeed, the state of affairs is exactly such as might be expected in a country governed by a sluggish hierarchy, entirely dependent for protection on a foreign and very distant government.

With the exception of one gold mine, according to Abdul Russool, the revenue of the state is wholly derived from land rent, which is fixed in its amount by the unalterable records of the country, where the sum due by each respective estate is particularly specified, and collected agreeably thereto by the zoongpoons deputed from Lassa. The tenures by which land property is held are said greatly to resemble those of Bengal, and may like them be sold and transferred in whatever manner is most agreeable to the proprietor, and when retained descend in hereditary succession. The tenants and cultivators who punctually discharge the legal demands against them can neither be removed or have that demand augmented. The revenue when collected is forwarded to Lassa, where it is deposited with the phompoms or fiscal officers, who, under the control of the viziers, have charge of the general treasury and superintend the state disbursements. There is no regular tribute paid by the Tibet state to the emperors of China, but an inconsiderable present is annually sent him by the grand Lama, who receives one in return of much greater value.

The geographical and chronological knowledge of the Tibetians is so very limited that no accurate information has yet been procured, either of the ancient extent of the kingdom, or of the age of their religious institutions. Their cycle is that of twelve years, and their year is subdivided into twelve months, commencing like the Hindoo Hooly at the vernal equinox. In 1816 the deba of Taclacot informed Captain Webb that 130 years had elapsed since the perfect subjection to China of the provinces adjacent to the British possessions in Northern Hindostan; but there is reason to believe that event took place about A.D. 1720, when the emperor of China acquired the sovereignty of Tibet in the old way, by interfering in the quarrels of two contending parties. On the 5th of July 1780 the Teshoo Lama died in China of the small-pox, in the forty-

seventh year of his age. In December 1783 his successor, although only eighteen months old, and unable to speak, when visited by the British ambassador, conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum; such were the effects of early discipline.

The affairs of Tibet continued in a flourishing, or at least tranquil condition, until 1790, when the Gorkhas of Nepaul without provocation commenced hostilities, the first experienced for many years, and invaded Tibet. Their progress was rapid, and being wholly unexpected, they appeared so suddenly before Teshoo Loomboo as scarcely to allow the Lama and his gylongs time to effect their escape, which they did with great difficulty across the Sanpoo river. Having then plundered Teshoo Loomboo of the accumulated contributions of ages, and the tombs of their most valuable ornaments, the Nepaulese troops withdrew to their own country, into which they were pursued by the Chinese, defeated in several actions, and at last forced to sue for peace on most ignominious terms, being compelled to restore all the plunder captured during their expedition, and pay an annual tribute. Since that epocha the Lamas have enjoyed profound peace; but their influence has been much weakened, or rather overpowered, by that of their terrestrial protector, the emperor of China. The year 1816 was a period of the grand or Dalai Lama's disappearance from the earth, the human form which he last animated having ceased to breathe on the 13th of the Persian month Rubbee ul Sanee, in the year of the Hejira 1230, at the age of eleven, after a spiritual and temporal reign of four years.—(*N. Macleod, Abdul Russool, Capt. Turner, Bogle, Moorcroft, Rennell, F. Buchanan, Klaproth, &c.*)

TIBET, LITTLE.—See LAHDACK.

TICAO ISLE (*or St. Hyacintho*).—A small island, one of the Philippines, situated due south of the large island of Luzon; lat. 12° 30′ N., lon. 123° 40′ E. In length it may be estimated at twenty-eight miles, by seven the average breadth. Here the galleon used to take in water and provisions before her usual departure for Acapulco.

TICKARY.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, fifty miles S.W. from Patna; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E. Tickary is only remarkable as being the residence of Raja Mitrajeet, one of the very few remaining wealthy zemindars in the Company's old provinces, and what is still more unusual, one of the very few possessing common sense. The soil of his estate is in general poor, and requires much artificial watering; yet in 1811 his clear income was estimated at £40,000 per annum; an immense sum in this cheap country. The fort has a substantial earthen rampart, with bastions fit for guns, and a good wet ditch. Within this is the raja's house, a large pile of building, surrounded by the usual native appendages of gateways, gardens, tanks, fountains, and pavilions, besides a well-built circus and busy market-place close to the premises.

The Mahomedans in the Bahar district occasionally make converts of pagans, especially by the purchase of slaves, who are treated with great kindness; but this mode of conversion goes on much more slowly than formerly, when the Mahomedans possessed the government and an enormous income, a great part of which was dissipated on this pecuniary method of propagating their faith. Still, however, there is reason to believe that within these thirty or forty years a considerable increase in the number of the faithful has taken place. By the mere exertion of fakeers, missionaries, or religious mendicants, very little has been or can be done, but by the simple processes of purchasing and procreation, any religion might in a reasonable time be extended without giving offence, a very large portion of the nominal Hindoo natives being considered by

the spiritual directors now in the country as not worth admission into their flocks.

A conversion of this description in a temporal view would be evidently disadvantageous, and in a spiritual sense the methods above alluded to could not with propriety be adopted. The plan, however, has succeeded perfectly well with the Mahomedans, probably more than one-half of the sect having an intermixture of Hindoo blood. So far are the Hindoos from objecting to this mode of propagating a religion, that Raja Mitrajeet of Tickary, a Brahmin, having had a son by a Mahomedan woman, bred him up in that faith, and in 1809 was expected to leave him a large proportion of his vast estates. If it be asked why a Brahmin did not lose caste by such an action, the reply is easy, that a man possessing Raja Mitrajeet's wealth and power cannot lose caste, for the priests would never dream of committing so uncourtly an action.

The Tickary rajas are military Brahmins, chiefs of the Domkatar tribe, and until lately lived in obscurity. Beer Sah was the first person who obtained a small zemindary, about the time the Mogul government began to decline. His son Soonder, by his talents in turbulent times, for which he was qualified, obtained a still larger estate. He lived, as was then customary, seizing on all lands within his reach, plundering such as would not join his standard, and paying nothing to government unless when compelled by an army. Having been assassinated, he was succeeded by Buniyad, who, promising obedience to the English, was decoyed to Patna by Cossim Ali, and put to death, after which his wife was delivered of a posthumous son, the present Raja Mitrajeet. Cossim Ali sent a party to destroy the infant, who was concealed in a basket of cow-dung and preserved. After the battle of Buxar he emerged from his concealment, and has ever since shewn great attachment to the British government. Being a prudent man, besides his purchases of land he has accumulated much wealth, occasionally making a great display, but in private like all Hindoos, frugal and penurious.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

TIDORE.—One of the Molucca isles, about twenty-one miles in circumference, situated on the west coast of Gilolo, three leagues south from Ternate; lat. 0° 48′ N., lon. 127° 25′ E. Both of these islands are remarkably well watered by streams from their respective peaks, which are usually cloud-capped. Tidore is populous, and formerly contained twenty-five mosques. The sultan also was a potentate of considerable consequence in this part of the world, as he possessed a great part of Gilolo to the south and east, the chief towns being Maba, Weda, and Patany; and besides claimed sovereignty over Wageeoo, Mysol, and Battanta. In point of fact, however, he was completely subject to the Dutch, who raised and deposed sultans as best suited their commercial speculations.

On the 8th November 1521 Juan Carvalho, one of the surviving companions of Magellan, arrived at Tidore, and was well received by its chief, who granted him a factory for the purpose of collecting cloves and other spices. On the 21st December he loaded two ships with spices for Spain. Gonzalo Gomez de Espinoza commanded the Trinidad, and it was his intention to proceed to Panama in Mexico, but he was captured by the Portuguese. Sebastian del Cano went in the Victoria by the Cape of Good Hope, and after having lost many of his crew during the voyage, arrived at St. Lucas on the 7th September 1522 with only eighteen men, three years from the date of their departure from Seville, having thus performed the first circumnavigation of the globe.

In 1526 a second Spanish squadron arrived at Tidore, where they found the Portuguese had declared war against the chief on account of the

succour he had afforded to the squadron of Magellan. Hostilities then commenced between the two nations, and continued with varied success until 1529. The Spaniards alleged that these islands were within the Pope's line of demarcation, which was the fact; but the Portuguese were unwilling to relinquish so profitable a trade. About this period these differences were adjusted, the Emperor Charles the Fifth renouncing his right, such as it was, to the Moluccas for the consideration of 350,000 ducats, advanced to him as a loan by the king of Portugal.

In 1579 Drake, the famous circumnavigator, arrived at Tidore, and began to gather spices without the permission of the king, who was at first greatly incensed; but being afterwards by presents conciliated, his rage abated. In 1613 the Dutch captured all the Portuguese settlements on this island and on Solor.

In 1808 Mahomed Zein ul Abdeen, the sultan of Tidore, applied by letter to the Bengal government, soliciting a supply of ordnance stores and ammunition to enable him to resist the Dutch, by whom his dominions had been recently conquered and ravaged, and himself, family, and dependents compelled to fly to Papua. From this asylum he was soon afterwards transported with his family, by Captain Greig of the bark Lord Minto, to Ossoon, on the east side of Gilolo, where a considerable number of his most attached followers had assembled. In consequence of these circumstances the Bengal government forwarded to the sultan different stores to the value of 18,000 rupees, on the arrival of which he attacked the Dutch and Ternatese, and recovered his authority in the Moluccas, and land of Maba on the island of Gilolo.—(*Zuniga, Forrest, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Tilgunna.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the high road to Rewah, about 26 miles travelling distance S. by W. from Allahabad city.

Tjilenking.—A large Malay village in the island of Java, situated about five leagues east from Batavia.

Tillore.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunna of Indore, which in 1820 belonged to Holcar, and contained about 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Tilokpoor.—A town in the province of Lahore, twenty miles west from Kangra, lat. 31° 35′ N., lon. 76° 0′ E.

Tilyn.—A Burmese stockade in Cachar, the head-quarters of their army, to which, in 1824, a British fleet of boats, with troops, ascended, combined with those of Gumbheer Singh. The attack, however, was repulsed with considerable loss; but subsequently, in consequence of the landing of Sir Archibald Campbell at Rangoon, the Burmese abandoned the station and province.

Timerycotta.—A town in the northern circars, district of Guntoor, 77 miles W. by N. from the town of Guntoor, lat. 16° 35′ N., lon. 79° 25′ E. Six miles west of Timerycotta, a cataract is formed during the rainy season by the river Yedlapadu, which in the opposite season is perfectly dry. The water falls from a height of about sixty feet, into a basin, 120 feet in breadth, ornamented with several Hindoo places of worship. The great elevation from which this water is projected would, under proper management, greatly assist irrigation.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Timaan Isle.—A very small island, situated off the east coast of the Malay peninsula, lat. 2° 52′ N., long. 104° 5′ E. This island is high and woody, and has several others still smaller, lying off it to the westward. Vessels bound to India, through the straits of Malacca, may go within the islands of Timaan, Pesang, Aor, Pulo Tingy and the main.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

Timor (*east*).—A large island in the Eastern seas, intersected by the ninth degree of south lat., and ex-

tending obliquely in a north-east and south-west direction. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles by forty the average breadth. The chiefs of Semao, Rotto, Savu, Kesser, and Roma isles, are also subordinate to the Dutch factory at Coopang.

Timor is a hilly country, but does not contain any volcanoes. The elevation of some parts as seen from the sea, Captain Flinders thought not much inferior to the peak of Teneriffe. The rivers are small, and not navigable beyond the influence of the tides, which rarely exceeds a mile, the rise and fall being about nine feet. The south-west point is surrounded by a reef from half a mile to a mile off, and runs for some distance up the straits, both sides of which are low lands, but the water is nevertheless very deep. The width of the entrance is three miles and a half, with a depth of thirty-six fathoms; nor are there any dangers except the reef above mentioned. The interior is a ridge of mountains of great height, while the shores on the south side are low and over-run with mangroves.

A large supply of sandal-wood is annually procured from hence; but in quality is reckoned inferior to that of Malabar. The most highly perfumed wood is found near the root. About 10,000 cwt. are annually exported, in the first instance to Java, but ultimately to China. Gold is found in several of the Timor rivers, both in lumps and grains; but the aborigines are said to have a strong aversion to search for, or even to touch it, and many years ago massacred a party of Dutch sent inland to collect the precious metal. Copper abounds in the Philaran hills, but no iron has as yet been discovered. The Dutch and Portuguese between them claim the whole sovereignty of the island. Fort Concordia is the capital of the first and Delli of the last, but their respective boundaries are ill-defined, and some of the native chiefs disclaim all subordination. It is, however, admitted that the whole coast east of Delli belongs to the Portuguese, and the whole of the south coast to the Dutch; on the north-west coast their possessions are intermingled.

The natives are mostly of a dark colour, with frizzled bushy hair, but approaching less to the Papuan negro than the natives of Endé. They are below middle size, slight in their persons, and more resemble the South-sea islanders than the Malays. In the interior they are subdivided into small communities, governed by chiefs, who exercise all the powers of sovereignty over the lower classes; near the European settlements the respective residents administer justice. The religion of the country is Pagan, but most of the chiefs prefer Christianity, retaining at the same time their ethnic priests, customs, and superstitions. It is said, that so late as 1820 there was not one genuine native convert to Mahomedanism on the whole island, nor was there any trace of Hindooism. Their deities are particular stones and trees, the supposed representatives of evil spirits, whom they worship to escape harm, conceiving they run no risk of annoyance from good spirits.

Their domestic quadrupeds are buffaloes, horses, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, cats, deer, monkeys, &c. They cultivate rice, maize, millet, kachang, yams, sweet potatoes, and cotton; but maize is the staple article of food, together with the sugar of the lontar palm, and a species of sago. The use of the plough is unknown, a wooden spade and sharp pointed stick being their agricultural instruments. In some cases they have wet land trampled to a proper consistence by buffaloes. Coco-nuts and the areca palm are scarce, but the lontar palm abounds. A little sugar-cane is planted, but not for the purpose of making sugar. Fish abound on the coast, but the natives are afraid of the sea, and seldom venture into a canoe.

Their arms are bad muskets, and spears of iron and bamboo. In 1820, a rebel chief, named by the Dutch, the keyser or emperor of

Amanoobang, had about 2,000 men trained to fight on horseback. The population is but thinly scattered over the island, and except those built by Europeans, it cannot be said to contain any towns. In 1820, the imports consisted of coarse blue and white clothes, chintses of a large pattern, glaring red handkerchiefs, china silks of coarse and gaudy patterns, payongs, muskets and gunpowder, iron, coarse cutlery, Macassar purangs and lead. The exports were sandal-wood, earth oil and wax. Many whalers put in at Coopang and Delli, to trade and procure refreshments.—(*Malay Miscellanies, Flinders, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Timor Laut.—An island in the Eastern seas situated between the seventh and eight degrees of south latitude, and the 132d and 133d of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at seventy miles by twenty-five, the average breadth. Except its dimensions and geographical situation, nothing further is known respecting it.

Tinnevelly (*Trinavali, one of Vishnu's names.*).—A district in the Southern Carnatic, situated between the eighth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and occupying the south-eastern extremity of what is usually termed the peninsula. To the north it is bounded by the collectorate of Madura, on the south-east it is separated from the island of Ceylon by the gulf of Manaar; and on the west is bounded by Travancore, from which it is separated by a high ridge of woody mountains of extremely difficult access. Generally speaking, however, Tinnevelly may be called an open country, as it contains few hills, and those insulated and detached; but it comprehends several tracts of waste and jungle, especially towards the east, in the neighbourhood of Tuticorin. In the Punjinahal and Calacaud divisions there are numerous palmira trees, growing in a sandy soil, and interspersed with dry grain cultivation. The elevation of the land above the sea increases as the coast recedes from the gulf of Manaar; but the district on the whole is considerably lower than the adjoining ones. The principal rivers are the Tambarapurni and Sylaur. The first rises from the Travancore ghauts, lat. 8° 35′ N.; and about twelve miles from its source forms the cataract of Pampanassum; after which, traversing a rich and cultivated country, it passes Palamcotta within a mile north, and proceeds towards the sea, into which it falls at Permacoil, having been previously joined by the Sylaur.

The Sylaur river rises in the hills immediately north of Pooliery, at the eastern opening of the Ariangawel pass; soon after which it is united with several rivulets, the most remarkable being that which creates by its falls the cataracts of Courtallum, in lat. 8° 56′ N. This last-mentioned stream issues among the mountains that compose the southern side of a kind of recess formed by the retiring of the great ghauts, and which is noted for the singularity of its climate. This recess is above twenty miles in width, and its greatest opening through the Ariangawel pass into the Travancore province about half as much, the pass itself being very narrow, and about ten miles in length. The recess has of late years been tolerably cultivated, and from the loftiness of the hills the scenery is grand and picturesque, resembling certain romantic spots in Switzerland. Towards Cape Comorin there is another pass into Travancore, known as the Arumbooli pass, about two miles in width, and as much in length, the eastern opening of which lies exactly in the meridian of the cape, at the distance of twelve miles.

Towards the southern and eastern extremity of the coast there are many salt marshes, the largest being situated in Colsailpatnam and Veerapatty in Calacaud. These marshes were formerly distinct and separate, but owing to some inundations about twenty years ago, four of them were united. They are divided from the [illegible] by high sand-hills, however it [illegible]

natural communications with it, and lie at unequal distances of from four to thirteen miles. Since the heavy monsoon of 1810 they have been filled to the depth of from five to ten feet, and the stagnant water, by its long continuance, has done infinite mischief by flooding the villages and cultivated lands.

The climate of the northern portion of the Tinnevelly district greatly resembles that of Madura, but there is a considerable difference towards the centre, and along the fertile banks of the Tambarapurni. The northern monsoon seldom reaches these quarters before the end of November, and generally is not so heavy as in the central Carnatic. In common seasons the rains are over about the end of December, about which period the thermometer falls below 70° at sunrise. This district has one peculiarity of climate, which is, that a fall of rain is always expected late in January, sufficient in quantity to raise the rivers and replenish the tanks. In March the thermometer ascends to 94°. The cool retreats of Tinnevelly are Courtallum, already mentioned, and Trichendore; the climate of the first being particularly gratifying to the feelings of an European early in June, immediately after the heavy Malabar rains have commenced. The difference of the thermometer between Palamcotta and Courtallum is usually about ten degrees, the first being much the hottest. With respect to this happy valley (Courtallum) it is a singular fact, that even while the rains daily pour down, and the sky is overcast, there is no sensation within doors of damp, as there is in the Carnatic during the north-east monsoon, and razors and other steel instruments remain for a long time without rusting. Another circumstance greatly assists the convalescence of individuals, which is a small cataract, projected from a rock, under which Europeans bathe, and derive great benefit from its invigorating effects. The average temperature of the water at this fall is from 72° to 75° of Fahrenheit. The greatest height of the lowest fall of a cataract here is nearly 200 feet; and at no great distance there is a beautiful pagoda dedicated to Siva.

Although, as may be inferred from the above description, the climate of Courtallum is very delightful during the months of June, July, August, and September, it is far otherwise during those of February, March, April, and May, partaking as it does of both monsoons. Being deprived of the salutary influence of the southerly winds, filled with luxuriant vegetation, and unventilated during the last-mentioned four months, the climate becomes close and sultry, and generates an endemic fever similar to that experienced on the Senegal and Gambia. Trichendore is a place on the sea-side about thirty miles east of Palamcotta, and is resorted to during the months of March and April, for the benefit of the sea breeze and change of air, but in both these respects it is inferior to Moolapetty. In respect to climate, generally, Tinnevelly has many advantages. The north-east monsoon is mild; in March, April, and May, the unpleasant months of the year, the sea is at hand; and in June, July, and August, Courtallum affords a refuge to invalids.

The chief productions of this district are rice and cotton; the last of a superior quality, and amounting to 34,000 cawnies annually. But the same land cannot be put under cotton two successive seasons; one year's fallow must intervene, although the soil and climate are both favourable. Many fruits, roots, and greens are produced, but some of the most common Carnatic pulses are wanting, and during unfavourable seasons rice is imported from Travancore. Prior to the French revolution, when Ceylon and the Eastern islands were possessed by the Dutch, it was considered of importance to establish spice plantations in Tinnevelly. Cinnamon and other spice plants were accordingly procured, at a great expense, and planted in gardens rais-

ed among the hills, which in 1814 yielded as follows:

	Trees.
Cinnamon	110,557
Nutmegs in the shell...	545
Coffee.....................	25,253
	lbs.
Cinnamon in store......	1,394
Nutmegs ditto	4,391
Coffee ditto	603

Few of the nutmeg trees had then attained their full growth, but they were generally flourishing and healthy. The cinnamon plants also appeared to thrive, and although inferior in quality to those produced at Columbo, the bark would still have been valuable, had not Great Britain acquired Ceylon in perpetuity.

The chief towns in size and population are Tinnevelly, Alvartinevelly, Shermadevy, and Culdacoorchy. The Mahomedans are very few, and the primitive Hindoo manners and customs are scarcely any where seen in greater purity. Apparently, the lapse of twenty centuries has made no change whatever. The Coillery tribe, on the western frontier, present nothing of the ugliness and deformity which generally characterize natives of the hills and wilds of Hindostan: on the contrary, they are tall, well-made and featured, and of a martial disposition. The present inhabitants of Tinnevelly seem to live in a style of superior comfort to those of the neighbouring districts, and in 1822, according to the returns of the collectors, were estimated at 564,947 persons. Their dwellings are mostly well raised and constructed, especially in the towns adjacent to the Tambarapurni, where tiled houses, and wide clean and regular streets are seen. In the northern and western tracts of the Shevelpatore estate the dwellings are of a very inferior description, ill-placed, damp, and unhealthy, concealing a gaunt, meagre, ill-looking race.

In times of remote Hindoo antiquity this district formed part of the great Pandian empire, the capital of which was Tanjore. During the early Carnatic wars, from 1740 to 1760, it swarmed with independent poligars, distinguished by uncouth names, such as the Pullitaver, Nubbeekhan, Cutteck, Catabominaigue, and Panialumcrutch, in a state of perpetual hostility, each having his fort or den, situated among the woods and fastnesses which then almost covered three-fourths of the country. At that period, in conjunction with Madura, Tinnevelly was farmed for eleven lacks of rupees; and low as was the assessment, it generally ruined the farmer from the difficulty of collection. In this disorderly state it continued until 1792, from which date the Madras presidency collected the tribute; but until very lately, the poligars of many of the smallest tracts of country exercised not only civil but criminal jurisdiction, the services as well as the lives of their subjects being at their disposal.—When the war with Tippoo commenced in 1799, and the Madras army was actively employed in his dominions, a formidable insurrection broke out among the southern pollams of Tinnevelly, for the quelling of which a body of troops was marched into the country. This occasion was embraced for disarming the poligars, demolishing their forts and strong-holds, and reducing them immediately under the civil authority of the Company. In 1801 a second insurrection took place among the southern pollams, which was considered to be connected with another in the Dindigul and Malabar countries, but the whole were effectually subdued. In this manner, by the energy of government and the extinction of a divided authority, one of the finest districts of Hindostan was converted from a state of anarchy and confusion to one of subordination and prosperity.

The chief part of the revenue of Tinnevelly arises from the wet lands, which yield two crops in the year.—The system under which the revenue was realized during the government of the nabobs of the Carnatic, and at first with very little improvement

under the British, was that of all others the most liable to abuse.—The government and the cultivators shared the crop according to a valuation of the harvest made by persons appointed for the purpose, when the season was so far advanced as to admit of a probable estimate being formed. After the crop was reaped the servants of government received the sovereign's share, which, if less than the estimate, was made up by the farmer; if more, the surplus was equally divided. The next operation was to determine what proportion of the government grain should be received in money, or rather how much of it should be delivered to certain of the principal inhabitants to sell on government account. Two-fifths of the government proportion were in this manner generally made over to the inhabitants at a price regulated by circumstances; the remaining three-fifths were stored up by the public functionaries. It was consequently the policy of the native ruler, to increase his revenue by monopolizing the grain and enhancing its price, without regard to the ultimate amelioration of the country; but it was consistent with British policy to endeavour to abolish the monopoly, and transmute the rent in kind to a money rent.

It is evident that the native system had innumerable disadvantages, and tended to deteriorate both the morals and agriculture of the province. It held out encouragement to no industry but that exerted to defraud government; and by converting the character of the sovereign into that of a merchant, it forced the government to monopolize the food of the people to secure its revenue. The abolition of a system so replete with inconvenience had long been a primary object with the British authorities, but so many obstacles and impediments intervened, from the prejudices and habits of the natives, that it was not until 1809 that a transition to a money rent could be accomplished. The inhabitants liked the old system because it was old; because it held out a specious appearance of proportioning the sovereign's demand to the produce of the season; because their apathy led them to prefer subsistence unattended with the responsibility of converting their grain into money to profit accompanied by risk and exertion; and lastly, because the system presented a wide field of embezzlement wherein to exercise their exertion and ingenuity. Indeed, in all countries the great mass of the people are the last to recognize the advantages resulting from the application of principles which, notwithstanding their justness, do not happen to be perfectly obvious.

Under the old system government nearly monopolized all the grain, because its share was withheld until the farmers had consumed theirs, when government grain was issued to the inhabitants; and the sovereign having thus become the great corn-factor of the country, derived his revenue from a monopoly of the grain instead of a rent from the land. Under such an arrangement the resources of the country could not be developed nor industry be properly exerted; although the revenue might have borne a large proportion to the land cultivated and to the labour put in motion, not to mention the enormous balances annually left outstanding. For it is not by a comparison of the gross sum exhibited in a land tax, that the merits of a settlement are to be appreciated, but by the net sum remaining in the treasury as an available resource for the general exigencies of the state. Although a transition from a grain to a money rent could not be effected without some diminution of the gross revenue, yet this apparent decrease was counterbalanced by a diminution of charges, and by a general improvement of the resources of the country, from the introduction of a more rational system of collection. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in Tinnevelly amounted to 5,64,131 star pagodas.—(*Hepburn, Public MS. Documents, Medical Reports, Fifth Report, Orme, &c.*)

TINNEVELLY. — A town in the southern Carnatic, the capital of the preceding district, fifty-nine miles N.N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 48′ N., lon. 78° 1′ E. This place is situated about twenty-five miles east of the great mountains, and is large and populous. On three sides it is surrounded by extensive paddy fields, watered from the river, and on the west by dry, high, and rocky ground. —(*Medical Reports, &c.*)

TINGRI.—A fortress in eastern Tibet, situated in the Tingri plain, which according to Abdul Russool had two pieces of cannon and a garrison of 200 soldiers. The adjacent village contained only forty houses, although it lies on the main road from Catmandoo to Lassa, and is a station where supplies of horses may be procured. From hence to Teshoo Loomboo the road is level, and it was by this route that the Gorkha troops marched when they invaded Tibet, and plundered Teshoo Loomboo, in 1792.

The favourite abode of the chiroo, or Bhotea antelope, or supposed unicorn of the Himalaya, is the Tingri Meidan, a fine plain or valley through which the Arun flows, and which is situated immediately beyond the snows by the Koote pass. In this valley beds of salt are said to abound, to which the chiroos resort. —(*Abdul Russool, Mr. Hodgson, &c.*)

TIPERA (*Tripura*).—A large district in the province of Bengal, situated principally between the twenty-second and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Silhet and Dacca Jelalpoor; on the south by Chittagong and the sea; to the east it is separated by hills and deep forests from the Burmese dominions; and on the west it has the great river Megna and the district of Dacca Jelalpoor.

The Tipera district, also named Roushenabad, is the chief eastern boundary of Bengal, and of very large dimensions. In 1784 it was estimated to contain 6,618 square miles, but various lands have since been added, and its eastern limits are not yet accurately defined. Towards this quarter the country is extremely wild and overgrown with jungle, and abounding with elephants; but the tracts adjacent to the Megna are rich, fertile, and commercial. The distance in a direct line from Comillah to the frontier of Ava Proper, near the river Kienduen, is rather more than 200 geographical miles. The Tripura tribe reach within a few miles of Comillah, and extend above thirty miles to the eastward, while Taunduen, the capital of the Aengiin, subject to Ava, is from twenty to thirty miles in a direct line west from the Kienduen. There is reason to suppose that the intervening space between the Aengiin and Tripura nations will be about 100 geographical miles in breadth. Through this extent no passage is known to exist. It is probably occupied by a mountainous barrier, *more rugged than high*, at least no hills of very great elevation are visible from the district boundaries.

Towards the east, between the territory of the Tripura race and the central inaccessible mountains, there is a wide hilly region, occupied by a people called Kookies (Kungkis), the Lingach of the Burmese, and Lingta of the Bengalese, who appear to be a martial and predatory people. These and other small tribes are the people interposed between Ava and Bengal, from about lat. 24° 25′ N., to lat. 22° 55′ N. The principal river of Tipera is the Goomty, which springs from an unknown source among the eastern hills. It is ascended in February by the wood-cutters, fifty miles above Comillah, being thus far navigable for canoes, with a shallow current and winding course. The low hills through which it flows are intermixed with marshes and jeels, and for many months of the year so pestiferous, as to deter even the Bengalese from entering them.

Both Tipera and Chittagong appear at one period to have belonged to the rajas of the first. They were

early (about A.D. 1279) attacked by the kings of Bengal, who seized large tracts, leaving, however, the Tipera rajas in the possession of large estates, as tributaries, while the more inaccessible parts continued wholly independent, and occupied by the aboriginal inhabitants. The Mahomedans were in their turn worsted by the chiefs of Arracan, who retained possession of Chittagong until the ascendancy of the house of Timour began to operate in this remote quarter, when its conquest was finally effected in 1733. In times still more modern the estates on the plains belonging to the Tipera raja have been, since 1765, subject to the British government; but the Tripura nation or tribe continue to maintain a kind of independent principality among the eastern hills, about thirty miles wide. This people have features entirely resembling the Chinese and Burmese, have their huts built on posts (a marked distinction from the Bengalese), and follow divers impure customs abhorred by the Brahmins. They must consequently be considered as the same race as the more eastern nations, although their princes have adopted Hindoo names and usages; and with respect to the throne follow the system of Malabar, the raja being succeeded, not by his son, but by his nephew. At present the Tripuras seem to be divided into three tribes, named collectively Teura by the Bengalese, and, according to report, all speaking the same language, though varying in character. Maha Raja Rajindra Manick, the reigning chief in 1801, was much addicted to inebriety, and had, through imbecility and mismanagement, so much involved his circumstances, that his zemindary was much reduced in extent.

That portion of the Tipera district adjacent to the course of the Megna, from Daoudcaundy to Luckipoor, is famous for the production of excellent betel-nut, held in such high estimation by the Burmese and Arracaners that they buy up large quantities, and even anticipate the ensuing crops by advances of money. The coarse cotton goods of this country are known all over the world by the names of baftaes and cossaes, and are an excellent, durable and substantial fabric, and are largely exported, both by the Company and by private merchants. The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are cotton, rice, and betel-nut, the cultivation of which and the prosperity of the district generally appear to have been annually increasing. In 1814 the amount of the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, was 11,34,888 rupees, and in 1801 the total population was estimated at 750,000 persons, in the proportion of four Hindoos to three Mahomedans. Along the sea-coast salt is manufactured on government account. In this district there are not any regular schools or seminaries where the Hindoo and Mahomedan laws and religion are taught, and the lower classes of females have the reputation of being much addicted to suicide.

Among the forests of Tipera the gayal is found in a wild state, and the number of elephants annually caught is very considerable; but they are reckoned inferior to those of Chittagong and Pegu. The height of this animal has in general been much exaggerated. In India the height of females is commonly from seven to eight feet; that of males from eight to ten feet, measured at the shoulder, as horses are. The largest ever known, with certainty, belonged to Asoph ud Dowlah, the nabob of Oude, and was taken in 1796; yet his perpendicular height at the shoulder was only ten feet six inches. One belonging to Nusrit Jung, the late nabob of Dacca in 1798, and of a great age, measured ten feet high; and the standard height required by the Bengal government, for elephants purchased for their service, is nine feet.—(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Crisp, J. Elliott, &c.*)

TIRAIT.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Ditteah; lat. 26° 1′ N., lon. 78° 36′ E.

TIREEPOOR.—A village in the province of Coimbatoor, containing several Hindoo temples, situated about thirty miles travelling distance north by west from Daraporam.

TIRIKITCHCONAM.—A small town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, situated about nine miles travelling distance from the town of Chingleput. At this place there is a magnificent temple dedicated to Mahadeva, with four pyramidical gateways in the usual style of the south of of India. The principal one is about 160 feet high, and near to it is a noble tank faced with masonry. Another small temple devoted to the same deity, stands on the apex of a picturesque rock about 500 feet above the town, and is approached by a flight of steps, mounting in a straight line from the base to the summit. The officiating priests here tell a story of two Brahminy kites, which come every day precisely at noon to feed at this temple, and afterwards fly to Bengal to quench their thirst in the waters of the holy Ganges.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TIRHOOT (*Trihula*).—A district in the province of Bahar, of which it occupies the north-west corner, and situated principally between the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the jungle territory of Saptari, belonging to Nepaul; to the south by the great Ganges. On the east is the Bengal district of Purneah; and on the west the district of Sarun. In 1784, Tirhoot was estimated to contain 5,033 square miles; but since that period it has been variously modified.

Although not hilly, the surface of Tirhoot is more elevated, the soil drier, and the climate in general healthier, than those more to the south, yet during the summer the heat is intense. For agricultural purposes, it is plentifully supplied with water from several small rivers, and where these are wanting, tanks and reservoirs have been constructed. In a particular quarter embankments of considerable strength and elevation are necessary to restrain the waters of the great Gunduck river, which occasionally overflows these dikes and inundates vast tracts of country from Kurnal to Hajypoor, sweeping away whole villages, with all their cattle, inhabitants and woods. Tirhoot is generally well cultivated, but in the north and south extensive wastes are found, contiguous to old zemindaries, which having remained in a state of nature and without occupants for many years, leave the boundaries of these estates undefined, and give rise to frequent affrays and much litigation. Tillage, however, has progressively advanced since the first year of the decennial settlement; much jungle being annually reclaimed and brought under the plough or converted to wholesome pasture. The most valuable exportable commodities produced are sugar, indigo, saltpetre, opium, tobacco, pawn, turmeric, ginger and rice. Towards the northern frontier there are large forests, but no supply of timber deserving of note can be procured, for want of depth in the rivers. Could this be remedied large quantities might be obtained. The principal rivers are the Gunduck (a boundary one), the Bhagmati, and the Goggra. In 1814 the jumma or land assessment to the revenue was 12,34,680, and in 1801, the population was loosely estimated at two millions, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to four Hindoos. The principal towns are Hajypoor, Singhea, Durbunga and Mowah.

The impure saline composition named khari, is manufactured in considerable quantities, not far from the Ganges, about eight miles east of Singhea. The saline earth from which it is made is called rehu, and effloresces in several pergunnahs in the districts of Tirhoot and Sarun, and is scraped together and collected at the surface. It is subsequently procured by burning and lixivation. At present there are not any brick or mud forts, nor is there any species of fortification to be seen, or any remarkable public building, if we except the gaol,

always the most conspicuous ornament of a Bengal district, and generally well populated. In 1811, durnig Lord Minto's administration, it was proposed in council to establish a Hindoo college at Bhowra in Tirhoot, which had been an ancient hot-bed of Brahminical superstition, upon the plan of the institution at Nuddea on the Hooghly.

On account of its natural advantages of soil and climate, this district was originally selected by the Bengal government as an eligible station for improving the breed of horses, the aboriginal race of horses in that province being of the most contemptible description, feeble, vicious, and scarcely larger than mastiffs. A low *marshy soil seems uncongenial to the* nature of this noble animal, which here degenerates immediately, while it thrives in arid tracts almost destitute of water. Many horses of the first quality have sinee been reared about Hajypoor, and horse dealers from Upper Hindostan attend the fairs to make purchases. A considerable number are also annually obtained at the government stud, for mounting the king's and native cavalry, besides those reared by the zemindars and others throughout the country.

Tirabhucti, corrupted to Tirhoot, in the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity was a component part of Maithila, an ancient division of India which comprehended a great proportion of the modern districts of Tirhoot, Sarun, and Purneah, and also part of the adjacent tracts now possessed by the Nepaulese. The limits of the whole were the Gunduck and the Cosa rivers and the Nepaul mountains, and within those territories a distinct language was spoken, still named the Maithila or Trihutya. During the wars of the Ramayuna its sovereign was named Janaca, whose daughter, the far-famed Seeta, espoused the great Rama, whose exploits are narrated in that mythological poem. Tirhoot appears to have continued an independent Hindoo principality until A.D. 1237, when it was invaded by Toghan Khan, the Mahomedan governor of Bengal, who extorted a large sum of money from the raja, but did not retain possession of the country. It was finally subdued about A.D. 1325 by the Emperor Allah ud Deen, who annexed it to the throne of Delhi. Along with the rest of the province it devolved to the British government with the Dewanny in 1765, but was not permanently assessed for the revenue until 1794.—(*J. Grant, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Stewart, &c.*)

TIRI.—A station in Northern Hindostan, which in 1817 was the residence of the Gurwal Raja; lat. 30° 23′ N., lon. 78° 28′ E.; elevation above the level of the sea 2,278 feet. At this place the Ganges receives the *Bhilling*, a considerable river that issues from the snowy chain.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

TIRJOOGEE NARAI TEMPLE.—A small temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty miles north by east from Serinagur; lat. 30°39′ N., lon. 78°55′ E.

TIROON.—A district on the east coast of Borneo, situated between the third and fourth degrees of north latitude. The coast here is all low mangrove land, the mountains being very distant, and inhabited by Idaan. The country abounds with sago-trees, which being the chief sustenance of the natives, they plant annually in great numbers to prevent any deficiency, as a considerable time must elapse before they are fit to cut down. The produce of the country consists principally of sago and birds'-nests, both of which are in great plenty and perfection. It also yields wax, canes, rattans, mats, honey, biche-de-mar, and in some parts gold. In this district there are many rivers the largest, named the Barow or Curan, from different places near it, has about three fathoms of water at the mouth, but there are several shoals which render the assistance of a pilot necessary.

The tribes known by the names of Tiroon and Tedong live chiefly on the north-east coast of Borneo, and are reckoned a savage and piratical race, addicted to cannibalism. Their

language is little known, but is accounted peculiar to the tribe, which is probably a subdivision of the Idaan or Horaforas.—(*Forrest, Dalrymple, Leyden, &c.*)

TIRTAPURI.—A small town in Tibet, perched on the top of a tableland 200 feet high, the residence of a Lama and several gylnogs, who dwell in separate houses of rough stone, and lead a pastoral life; lat. 31° 10′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E. This place is overhung by steep craggy lime-stone rocks, insulated pillars of which, having resisted the weather longer than the softer portions, seem ready to tumble on the inhabitants. About two miles to the west are two hot springs of clear water bursting from a calcareous table-rock twelve feet high, and nearly half a mile in diameter, which appears itself to have been formed of the sediment deposited by the spring while cooling, and is as white as stucco. The water as it overflows the little basins forms a great variety of fantastic figures, the calcareous matter being probably supplied by the chalky mountains above Tirtapuri, to the north-west of which, near Misar, gold is found. The low swampy land in the vales yields a grass which is cut and carried for winter hay for the horses of Garpan, Kienlung, Deba, and Dumpu. Nearly opposite to the Lama's house is a broad wall of stone, 150 yards long by four broad, covered with a great number of loose stones, on which prayers have been inscribed by the pilgrims. There are also many small maths (temples) having niches in one side, on which are impressions of Lamas and Hindoo deities in unburned clay; and on some piles of loose stones are figures of Lamas of Narayan (Vishnu), and of Bhasmasur.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

TIRUPMEW (*or the Chinese city*).—A town in the kingdom of Ava, situated on the east side of the Irawady, nearly opposite to the junction of that river with the Keenduem; lat. 22° 20′ N., lon. 95° 16′ E. The name is said to have originated in remote times from a victory gained here over the Chinese.—(*Trant, &c.*)

TIRWAN ANGADY (*Tiravana angadi*).—A small Moplay town in the Malabar province, nineteen miles S.S.E. from Calicut; lat. 11° 3′ N., lon. 75° 59′ E. This place stands on the banks of a river that comes from Irnada, and in the rainy season navigable for canoes thirty-two miles further up.

TJERINGHIN.—A considerable fishing village in the island of Java, situated on the east side of the straits of Sunda; lat. 6° 15′ S., lon. 105° 45′ E. To the south-east this is one of the best cultivated districts in Java, but the neighbouring woods and south-western extremity of the island have never been penetrated by any European, and still remain wholly unknown.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

TOBA LAKE.—A great lake in the Batta country in the island of Sumatra, which has not yet been visited by any European. In 1822 it was pointed out from the hills of Silindung, near Tapanooly, to Messrs. Burton and Ward, by their guides, the middle of the lake then bearing in the direction of north-east from the spot where they stood, which would make it probably N.E. from Tapanooly. From the distance at which they placed the extremities at each side of this central point, they estimated the length at sixty or seventy miles, by a breadth of fifteen or twenty miles. The water of this lake was described as being occasionally very rough, so much so as to impede the passage of boats to an island in its middle, where a periodical market is held. A large river and some smaller streams flow into this lake, which being described as rising and falling twice a day, will probably ultimately turn out to be an arm of the sea.—(*Burton and Ward, &c.*)

TOHANA.—A town in the province of Delhi, sixty-five miles west of Kurnal; lat. 29° 42′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

Toka.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-seven miles S.W. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 25′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. This place is built on a tongue of land formed by the confluence of the Pera river with the main stream of the Godavery, and though of small extent, and containing only one Hindoo temple, is a place of considerable religious resort. Its spacious and handsome ghants, descending to the water, combine with its lofty stone houses and fine site, to give it an imposing exterior. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Token Bessys.—A cluster of very small isles in the Eastern seas, situated off the east coast of Booton island; lat. 5° 40′ S., lon. 123° 35′ E. These numerous little isles are each of them surrounded by rocky shoals, between which very rapid currents set strongly to the eastward, and render the navigation hazardous. They are inhabited.—(*Stavorinus, &c.*)

Toling.—A town or station in Tibet, seven miles S.W. from the Sutuleje, the residence of a head Lama, and possessing (it is said) a superb temple; lat. 31° 11′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

Tomboro.—A remarkable volcano in the island of Sumbhawa, situated about forty miles W. from the town of Bima. On the 11th April 1815, a noise resembling the firing of guns was heard here, and at other stations between lat. 2° 30′ and 5° 30′ S., such as Salocmah, Manna, Padang Gooche, Moco Moco, Croee, and Semanko Bay. On this day happened the great eruption of the Tomboro volcano, but the distance to these places is so enormous a space for sound to be conveyed over (to Moco Moco in Sumatra, 1,400 miles), that we must suppose some intervening volcanoes were also exploding. That of Goonong Rawoong, near Bangawangy in Java, threw out great eruptions on the 10th and 11th. Even this is 728 miles travelling distance from Batavia, where many reports were heard.

On the 5th April 1815, a firing, as of cannon, was heard at Macassar, 217 nautical miles distant from Tomboro; and on the night of the 11th, the firing was again heard, but much louder, and the resident's house was shaken by the reports. Next morning the air at Macassar was obscured by volcanic dust and ashes, and by noon the darkness was complete, the ships' decks being covered with ashes. The darkness continued so intense that the hand was not visible when held within a few inches of the eye. On board one of his majesty's ships a dust, resembling calcined pumice-stone, lay a foot in depth, and great quantities were thrown overboard. On approaching Sumbhawa the sea was covered to a vast extent with floating pumice, mixed with large logs and trunks of trees, which looked as if blasted by lightning. On shore, the perpendicular height of the ashes in the neighbourhood of Bima town was found to be three inches and three quarters; and within that place the accumulation of the ashes was so great, as to break down the roof of the resident's house. Of the town of Sanjier, four or five leagues to the south-east of the Tomboro mountain, the greater part of the crops, and a number of inhabitants, were destroyed, and the bay covered with floating logs and pumice-stone ashes.—(*Journal of the Royal Institution, &c.*)

Tolo Bay.—A deep bay that indents the east of the island of Celebes, the coast of which, as yet, has been but little explored.

Toloar Isle.—This is the largest of the Salibabo islands, named by Valentyn *Karkallang*, and by Capt. Hunter, Kercolang, situated between the 4th and 5th degrees of north latitude, and about 126° 30′ east lon.

This island is from eighty to a hundred miles in circumference, and is in general of a good height. The face of the country is composed of steep hills and extensive vallies, every part of which is covered with trees and verdure. It is populous and well cultivated, the inhabitants being mostly Mahomedans, who wear turbans, and are covered with cotton

cloth. Their houses, erected on posts, are well-built and neatly thatched, the whole exhibiting a considerable degree of civilization. The Dutch had formerly a flag here, but about 1773 the Magindanese exercised a sort of jurisdiction over the island, and exacted a tribute, which was usually paid in slaves.—(*Capt. Hunter, Forrest, &c.*)

TOMINIE BAY.—A bay that deeply indents the north-eastern quarter of Celebes, and abounds with small rocky islands and rocky shoals. It is also named Goonong Tello bay.

TONDA BAVA.—A village in the Mysore province, situated in a wild country surrounded by mountains, about twenty-four miles travelling distance W.N.W. from Nundydroog. To the south of this place there is a fine reservoir; and on a small eminence, close to the village, is a singular temple formed in the natural hollow of a huge mass of granite, painted red and white within, and held in great reverence by the sect of Baidara, who resort hither and worship a rude emblem of Mahadeva, under the appellation of Trimala. This village and the fortress of Mahakalidroog ought to exchange places (1820) in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TONDI.—A town on the sea-coast of the Southern Carnatic province, lat. 9° 43′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E. This place gave the name to, but the modern capital of Tondiman's country is Puducotta.

TONDIMAN'S COUNTRY.—A large zemindary in the Southern Carnatic, bounded on the north by the province of Tanjore, and on the east by the bay of Bengal. Much of this great estate is still covered with forest, particularly the southern portion, where the savage character of the scenery is enhanced by the picturesque rocks which rise at intervals above the jungle. Towards Puducotta the country becomes more open, and the soil is a large grained sand, with rifts, moist in some places, and so soft and spongy as to sink to the depth of two feet under the tread of an elephant.

The Tondiman family having always exhibited the greatest fidelity and attachment to the East-India Company, at a time when these qualities, even in a zemindar, were of importance, great attention has, in consequence, always been shewn to their interests and to the amelioration of their estate. On the death of Vijaya Raghunath Tondiman in 1807 he left his zemindary to his two sons, then children, encumbered with a heavy debt of 80,000 pagodas, which, but for the interference of the Madras presidency, would have accumulated by embezzlement and usury to the utter ruin of the orphans. To prevent this natural progression of a native estate, the children were placed under the superintendance of Major Wm. Blackburn, then resident at Tanjore, associated with two most respectable relations as local managers, and so different was the result of this system, that in 1811 not one pagoda of the debt remained unpaid, while the cultivation of the soil, owing to the steady regularity of the management, had been greatly advanced. In that year the actual revenue received amounted to 32,604 star pagodas.

The Malabar system of succession, which prevails among the southern poligars, does not include the Tondiman's; for the present (1820) Tondiman is the grandson (not the grand nephew) of the chief celebrated in the early wars of the Carnatic. His younger brother takes a joint part with him in the administration of affairs. Both of them speak English with tolerable fluency, and are said to be very attentive to business, a rare quality in an East-Indian gentleman. So improved is the state of the country, that among this tribe of thieves, by birth and profession, a theft is scarcely known, a great contrast to its condition twenty years back, and a proof how easily the character of natives alters with altered circumstances. The Tondi-man (the English termination man, added to Tondi, the name of a town) is per-

haps the most favoured dependent of the British nation in all Hindostan, a just reward for the inflexible adherence of his family to the British cause at all times and through all fortunes. His original territories have been considerably enlarged; he is master of his own revenues, is protected from all external annoyance, and pays no tribute, subsidy, or contribution in any shape whatever.—(*Fullarton, Major Blackburn, Orme, &c.*)

TONGHO.—A town in the province of Pegu, situated on the east side of the Sitang river, said to be second in importance in the Burmese empire, situated about 100 miles east of Prome, from which it is separated by the Galadzet mountains; lat. 18° 45′ N., lon. 96° 45′ E. It has not as yet been described by any European, but according to native report is surrounded by a ditch and brick wall of some strength. This town was formerly the capital of an independent kingdom, which was subdued by the Peguers, and the district of Tongho is now the jaghire or personal estate of the king of Ava's elder brother, who bears the title of prince of Tongho.—(*Public Journals, Symes, &c.*)

TONGKHWEN.—A British district in the province of Arracan, extending from near Sandowy in lat. 18° 30′ N. to Cape Negrais in lat. 15° 55′ N.—The route from Sandowy to its chief town, named Ghoa, is along the sea-coast, which is every where studded with rocks, rocky isles, islets, and reefs, which render it a dangerous navigation at all seasons, and quite impracticable during the south-west monsoon. The road is intersected by numerous streams and creeks not fordable, and much swelled during the rains. This district in 1827, when visited by a British deputation, was found extremely thinly peopled, not owing to any deficiency of natural resources, but to the former misgovernment and tyranny of the Burmese.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

TONK.—A Rajpoot town in the province of Ajmeer, fifty miles travelling distance south from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 12′ N., lon. 75° 38′ E. This is a considerable town, well-built of stone, but containing no remarkable public edifices. It stands in a triangular hollow between two hills, and protected by an excellent stone wall, which forms the base of the triangle below, and stretches along up the margin of the cliffs behind. Close by is a small lake, about three miles south from the Banass. This town and territory was acquired in 1818 by the British government, which transferred it to Ameer Khan, who, probably for the first time in his life, became stationary here, and with some of his banditti in 1820 was building a house near the Banass.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TONORU.—A town in the Mysore province, near to which are still to be seen the remains of the wall of an ancient city, which indicate that they once must have been of great extent. The reservoir also is a very great work, and is said to have been formed by Rama Anuja, about the year 1,000 of the Christian era. It is formed by an embankment between two mountains, which Tippoo attempted to destroy by cutting a trench through the mound, in the hope, it is said, of finding treasure at the bottom. The tank was repaired after his overthrow, and the town has in consequence much recovered.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TONSE RIVER (*Tansa*).—A river of Northern Hindostan, which was unknown until 1814, although it is nearly treble the size of the Jumna above their junction, at lat. 30° 30′ N., and by far the most important river; for the Jumna is fordable above their confluence, while the Tonse is not. In 1819 Lieutenant Herbert traced this river to its source in the Himalaya, where it issues from a snowy bed, thirty-one feet broad and knee-deep, 12,784 feet above the level of the sea, near to the sources of the Jumna, but from the northern face of the same cluster of peaks. In the upper part of its

course it is called the Sapin.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Tonse (*Tonsa*).—A river which has its source in the mountains of Rewah, whence it descends in a tremendous cataract 200 feet high. It is afterwards joined by various tributary torrents from the same range, and after a course of above 100 miles through the plains, falls into the Ganges, about twenty miles below Allahabad. The Tonse is a very considerable stream during the rainy season, but is too rapid to admit of its being navigated.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Toojar.—A town in Northern Hindostan, six miles W.S.W. from Subhatoo; lat. 30° 56′ N., lon. 76° 53′ E.

Toolseepoor (*Tulasi Pura*).—A town in the province of Oude, fifty miles N. by E. from Fyzabad; lat. 27° 29′ N., lon. 82° 17′ E.

Toombudra River (*Tungha Bhadra*).—A river of the South of India, which rises near Hooly Onore, where the two rivers, the Tungha and the Bhadra, from whence it takes its designation, meet. The Tunga, which is the northern river, takes its rise in the Western Ghauts, about half a degree south of Bednore; the Bhadra, from a chain of hills situated to the eastward of the ghauts, nearly opposite to Mangalore, and known by the name of the Baba Booden hills. After flowing through a jungly country for nearly a degree, it joins its waters with the Tunga, at Koorly, a sacred village near Hooly Onore. From hence, taking a sweep first north and westerly, and afterwards to the east, it continues a very winding course until it joins the Krishna. Like the river last-mentioned, it is crossed in round baskets of bamboo wicker, rudely fastened together and covered with half-tanned hides.—(*Moor, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Lambton, &c.*)

Toomoon.—A small town in the province of Malwa, eighty-four miles west from Chatterpoor; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. By Abul Fazel it is described as follows: "Toomar is a town situated on the banks of the river Betwah, in which are seen mermaids. Here is an idolatrous temple, in which if you beat a drum it makes no noise."

Tooney.—A small town in the Northern Circars, within six miles of the sea-coast of the Rajamundry district, on the south bank of the river Salliaveram, which separates Rajamundry from Vizagapatam. This place contains several pagodas, and is situated in a pleasant country, with hills on both sides.

Toongha.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, twenty-seven miles from the city of Jeypoor. This place is built of grey-stone, and stands at the base of a ridge of hills. Ruins of a fort, tower and other edifices remain on the height above, which for ages have been untenanted; and about one mile and a half distant is another hill-fort, of considerable extent, named Madooghur.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Toongnauth Temple.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-one miles N.E. from Serinagur, lat. 30° 29′ N., lon. 79° 13′ E.; 9,989 feet above the level of the sea.

Tooracul Droog. — A hill-fort (probably in ruins) in the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, about eighteen miles travelling distance from the town of Bellary.

Toorgoody.—A large village in the Carnatic province, district of Trichinopoly, about thirteen miles travelling distance E.S.E. from the city of Trichinopoly. This place is on the high road from Trichinopoly to Tanjore, and possesses a bungalow for the accommodation of travellers. (*Fullarton, &c.*)

Toorkeira.—A brick-built town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa, and contained 200 houses; lat 21° 23′ N., lon. 74° 44′ E., ninety-six miles east from Surat. It stands on the banks of the Tuptee River, which

when full is here about three furlongs broad, but in May not above one-third of a furlong. It is crossed in a large flat-bottomed boat capable of holding 200 natives. The soil is rich and productive, but the country in 1816 was greatly infested by Bheels from the mountains.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

TOOREYOOR.—A town in the Carnatic province, twenty-five miles north from Trichinopoly; lat. 11° 7′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E.

TORBAILA.—A town in the province of Lahore, division of Puckely, situated on the east side of the Indus, where it is joined by the small river Door; lat. 34° 12′ N., lon. 72° 45′ E. The Indus here enters into an open country, and expanding over the plain, forms numerous islands.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

TORI FUTTEHPOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-four miles E. by S. from Ditteah; lat. 25° 28′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E.

TORITORY.—A village with the ruins of a picturesque Hindoo temple in the Carnatic province, situated on the extreme point of the Ramnad peninsula, about twenty-eight miles travelling distance from the town of Ramnad. This is the usual place of embarkation for pilgrims proceeding to Ramisseram. The breadth of the strait from Toritory to Paubam is about a mile and a half, and the passage is usually performed in a large heavy ferry-boat, pushed along with poles.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TORVAKAIRY.—A town in the Mysore province, fifty-two miles north from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 10′ N., lon. 76° 43′ E.

TOROFF (*Taruf*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Silhet, seventy-seven miles N.E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 91° 18′ E.

TORRES STRAITS.—Straits in the Eastern seas which separate the two large islands of Papua and New Holland. The passage recommended by Captain Flinders for passing through Torres Straits is by entering the reefs at Murray's island, by which route a two days' passage will carry a ship past all danger; but as the space between Wreck Reef and Murray's island is strewed with dangers, many of which have been discovered since the publication of Captain Flinders' charts, and of which the greater number have only been recently seen, it cannot be called a safe navigation. These dangers consist of low coral islands, surrounded by extensive reefs, upon which in dark nights a vessel is in momentary hazard of striking, and being in consequence completely shipwrecked. This route, called the inner passage, was first pursued by Mr. Cripps, of the brig Cyclops, bound from Port Jackson to Bengal in 1812; and was subsequently followed by Lieut. Jeffreys, of the hired armed vessel Kangaroo in 1815; but a safer route has been since pointed out by Captain King.

TOUBANG.—A large and populous town in Java, situated near the north coast, 470 miles east from Batavia, and fifty-four miles N.W. from Sourabhaya; lat. 6° 50′ S., lon. 112° 5′ E. Extensive forests of teak stretch hence over a rocky and hilly tract to the vicinity of Zedayo, on a near approach to which the land is level and well cultivated.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

TOURADJA (*Ta Rajja*).—An extensive district in the interior of Celebes, bordering to the north on the Alforeze mountains, which separate it from the bay of Tominie; to the east upon Loboo and Wadjo; to the south upon Sendering, and to the west on the Mandaus mountains.

A large proportion of the Ta Rajja tribe are aborigines, and unconverted to the Mahomedan faith, and are said to eat the prisoners made in war. Another portion live entirely on the water in their vessels, continually roving around Celebes, Floris, and Sumbhawa. These last are frequently named Biadjoos, and subsist by fishing biche-de-mar, and catching tor-

toises for the shell.—(*Stavorinus, Leyden, &c.*)

TOURATEA.—A small district situated at the southern extremity of Celebes, bounded by Macassar, Bontain, and the sea, and under the influence of the Dutch at Fort Rotterdam; lat. 5° 7′ S., lon. 119° 25′ E.

TOURNAGHAUT.—A pass in the province of Bejapoor from the Concan to the interior of the Western ghaut mountains; lat. 17° 35′ N., lon. 73° 50′ E.

TRADOK (*in Borneo*).—See MONTRADOK.

TRANG RIVER.—A river with a bar entrance in the Malay peninsula, which forms the northern boundary of Queda, in lat. 7° 20′ N. In 1820 the village of Trang contained about 400 inhabitants, and there were many others on both sides of the river, and of its numerous branches. Elephants and iron may be procured here. The country belongs to the Ligor raja under the Siamese, but of late years has been little frequented. In 1827 a few elephants, some rice, some Siam wood, and a little tea, were exported to the Coromandel coast.—(*Anderson, Captain Burney, &c.*)

TRANQUEBAR (*Turangaburi*).—A Danish settlement in the Southern Carnatic, situated on the sea-shore of the Tanjore district, 145 miles S. by W. from Madras. A Danish company was established at Copenhagen in 1612, and the first Danish vessel arrived on the coast of Coromandel in 1616, where they were kindly received by the Tanjore raja, from whom they purchased the village of Tranquebar, with the small territory adjacent, for which they still pay tribute. Here they erected the fortress of Dansburgh, the protection of which, and the correct conduct of the Danish company's servants, soon attracted population and commerce. The company, however, did not prosper, as in 1624 they surrendered up their charter and property to king Christian the Fourth, in payment of a debt they owed him. Under a frugal government the revenue of the port continued sufficient to pay the current expenses; and while Denmark continued neutral her subjects realized vast sums during the revolutionary war, by lending their names to cover British property. On the unfortunate rupture with that kingdom in 1807, the Danes were deprived of all their settlements in India.

The territory attached to Tranquebar is very small, being in its most extended limits about five miles long by three broad. The fortifications of the town towards the shore, consisting of a rampart and bastions faced with masonry, and a wet ditch at some distance from the walls, but without a glacis, are still (1820) in good repair. On the south there is a small branch of the Cavery, where boats find shelter; but there is no harbour, all vessels of a larger class being obliged to anchor outside of the surf. The form of the town is a polygon, and, though of small extent, is built with remarkable neatness and regularity. There is not a native hut or other mean structure within the walls. Two of the streets may be called handsome, the houses being of two and three stories, with little Grecian porticoes of three or four pillars projecting into the street, and windowed generally with rattan lattices. The government-house is near the centre, and there are two Protestant churches, besides a Portuguese Roman Catholic chapel. The fort or citadel occupies the south-eastern angle towards the sea, and contains an old castellated building, where the principal public offices are kept, with a light-house on the highest tower. The village of Pooriar, about a mile distant inland, forms a sort of suburb or black town, and besides the government garden-house, has several little Danish villas in the neighbourhood.

The revenues of Tranquebar are but scanty, being principally derived from the government share of the wet grain (rice) cultivation, the farms

for the sale of arrack, tobacco, fish, oil, &c. and also the produce of the sea customs. In 1809, when possessed by the British, the revenues of Tranquebar amounted to 16,013 star pagodas, and the total population to 19,679 persons. The principal commercial intercourse of this small settlement is with the Isle of France, Prince of Wales' Island, Singapoor, Ceylon, and Batavia. After the general pacification in 1814, Tranquebar was restored to its former owners, and has since much improved both in commerce and population. During the rupture with Britain this settlement necessarily suffered greatly; but the inhabitants bore the evil times without repining, and their conduct was on all occasions so strictly correct and honourable as to raise their character in the estimation of the adjacent British authorities under the Madras presidency. The raja of Tanjore still continues to receive the Tranquebar tribute, amounting to 2,000 chuckrums per annum.—(*A. H. Hamilton, Fullarton, Macpherson, &c.*)

TRAVANCORE, (*Tiruvancodu*).—A large province situated at the south-western extremity of Hindostan, between the 8th and 10th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the territories of the Cochin raja; on the south and west by the sea; and to the east it is separated from Tinnevelly by a range of lofty hills covered with jungle. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles, by forty the average breadth. The surface of the country in the vicinity of the mountains exhibits a varied scene of hill and dale, and winding streams which flow from the hills, and preserve the vallies in a state of perennial verdure. The grandeur of the scene is much enhanced by the lofty forests with which the mountains are covered, producing pepper, cardamoms, cassia, frankincense, and other aromatic gums. In the woods at the bottom of the hills are many elephants, buffaloes, and tigers of the largest size. Monkies, apes, and baboons, are very numerous, and herd together in flocks and families.

The agriculture and productions of Travancore, well adapted to its more favourable climate and superior soil, differ materially from the cultivation and crops of the Carnatic. The wet cultivation is conducted without the aid of tanks, the seasons affording sufficient moisture for the production of rice on every spot fit for that purpose, and as the utmost degree of industry is exerted, the quantity produced in a country like this, where the crops never fail, must necessarily be large. The natives believe this to be so considerable, that they assert the whole of the government expenses, civil, military, and religious, are defrayed from the wet cultivation alone, without infringing on that accruing from the dry species of tillage. The latter principally consists of pepper, betel-nut, and coco-nuts, all monopolized or heavily taxed. The timber forests are generally farmed; ginger, coir, turmeric, and kopra monopolized. Tobacco for the consumption of the province is imported from Ceylon, and made a government monopoly, and transit duties are exacted on all commodities passing through the interior. Among other articles, the produce of Travancore, and heavily taxed, are cassia buds, mace, long nutmegs, wild saffron, narwally, coculus indicus, bees'-wax, elephants' teeth, and sandal-wood. The sea customs of the province, Christian festivals, and fishermen's nets are taxed, and a capitation tax levied on all males from sixteen to sixty, with the exception of Nairs, Moplays, and artificers, the very classes best able to pay it. This operates as a tax on the soil, and compensates to government for the light assessment on the grain produce. The landholder is bound for all cultivators on his estate, each person is assessed at three fanams. The number subjected to this tax has been estimated at 250,000. The sum total of these multifarious exactions has been estimated at twenty lacks of rupees,

which is exclusive of the wet cultivation as already mentioned, and and from the detail here presented, some idea may be formed of the unsparing rapacity of fiscal regulations under a genuine Hindoo monarchy, the whole having been imposed before Travancore had any connexion with the British nation.

Under the old Travancore government, from the prime minister (the dewan) to the superintendent of a few houses there was an uninterrupted chain of authorities, subordinate in the strictest sense to their respective superiors and exercising all the powers of the sovereignty, for they were not only charged with the revenue assessments, the administration of justice, the chastisement of offenders, but also with the command of the military and defence of the country. The whole arrangement was calculated to obtain the completest command over the persons and property of the people; nor could any system of rule be better adapted for the purposes of extortion and oppression, throughout all their ramifications. These, however, were exactly the abuses which the British never tolerated in their dominions, and endeavoured to remedy in Travancore by introducing a balance of authorities, and depriving the karigars of their judicial and military functions, thereby reducing them to the station of mere revenue officers.

A short time before the effective interposition of the British government the dewan of Travancore, in imitation of the regulations promulgated in the Company's provinces, established a certain number of courts of justice, but from various causes the experiment did not succeed. In 1816, an improved system was introduced by colonel John Munro, the British resident, in which the Hindoo law was continued as the basis, but in certain cases departure from its strict letter was permitted. According to the Brahminical sacred statutes, the killing of a cow is capital, and the ordeal sanctioned, as [illegible] practices equally extravagant and absurd, while the punishments decreed were various, cruel, often ludicrous, and in reality inflicted according to the caprice of the dewan and his subordinate officers. Among other cases which came before the resident, while acting as dewan, was an appeal from the decision of a karigar or inferior judge, who had directed certain property to be given up to a man on oath. This suit being referred to an assembly of pundits for their opinion, they reported "that the decision of the karigar was correct and just, but as the oath taken had been rendered void owing to the death of a cow in the house of the person who had sworn, before the term of forty days had expired, the property must be relinquished to the opposite party."

Travancore, from the earliest tradition, has been subject to a Hindoo government and guided by Hindoo laws, which in many instances are founded less on the general principles of justice and morality, applying to all descriptions of persons, than upon peculiar dogmas of the Brahminical faith. Many delinquencies pronounced capital by the Hindoo laws, are not even deemed criminal by the Christian and Mahomedan codes; nor in Travancore can these two persuasions be considered strangers, being, in fact, an ancient and inherent portion of the community. It was accordingly thought improper to subject them to the operation of the Hindoo criminal law; a separate system was in consequence formed for each class, modelled upon that promulgated in the Company's old provinces. When submitted to the pundits, most of the requisite modifications of the shastras were adopted without hesitation, and acquiesced in by the queen, but to the trial by ordeal both parties clung with remarkable pertinacity; and it became necessary, in compliance with their reiterated supplications, to admit it in certain cases, under the express sanction of the dewan. Indeed, in Travancore, even so preposterous a mode of trial appears to have been

productive of salutary effects, in restraining, through the influence of their superstition and cowardice, the excesses of a cunning, avaricious, and cruel generation. So contagious is example, that that species of trial had pervaded other sects, and had occasionally been resorted to by the Jews of Travancore. One unfortunate Hebrew complained to the resident, that he, having incurred suspicion, had been obliged to put his hand in a vessel full of boiling oil; and not being able to sustain the fiery scrutiny, had lost his cause and the use of his hand.

The existing compilation of Hindoo law in Travancore is named Varahara Maleka, comprehending the rules for trial and judgment, with a detailed exposition of the holy texts. This code is said to have been drawn up by Mahesha Mungalum Nambuderi, a Brahmin of the Malabar coast, and inhabitant of Parumanum, in the territory of Cochin, about A.D. 1496. In 1811 courts, to administer justice according to the new code, were established at certain stations; but the British resident was obliged to perform the functions of dewan, it being found impossible to discover a native with adequate abilities and integrity throughout the whole province. Indeed, the successive dewans of Cochin and Travancore for a long series of years had been distinguished by an overbearing arrogance to their sovereigns, which rendered the queen averse to the re-establishment of so imperious a functionary.

Travancore being an integral portion of the ancient Malabar, the usages and customs greatly resemble those described under that head; and the mode of succession to the throne and property is regulated by the same extraordinary rules. The husbands of the tamburetties, or princesses, have no rank or authority in the state, and are always sent back to their villages on the decease of the tamburetties to whom they had been married. At a very early period the Christian religion gained a footing in Travancore, and its subsequent progress was so great, that twenty years ago this province was supposed to contain 90,000 persons professing the doctrines of Christianity. In some parts Christian churches are so numerous and Hindoo temples so rare, that a traveller with difficulty believes himself to be in India. The most common name given to the Christians of Malabar by the Hindoos of the country is that of Nazaranee Mapila (Moplay), but also very frequently Surians and Suriani Mapila. A large proportion of the fishermen on the sea-coast of Travancore and Malabar are Christians. After the suppression of the Jesuits the greatest number of Roman Catholic churches in Travancore and Cochin were attached to Goa, from whence they were supplied with Portuguese clergy; but the institution at Verapoly has gradually and unjustly encroached upon them, and now exercises a more extensive jurisdiction than any other. With respect to the general character of the Hindoo inhabitants, it seems to have struck two successive residents as being of the very worst description, destitute of truth and honesty, and abandoned to vice and corruption. This turpitude they attributed to the perverted system of their social relations, under which the social charities and the parental ties and affections, which connect father with child, and neighbour with neighbour, were extinguished.

In this kingdom the male offspring of the tamburetties, or princesses, are the only legal heirs to the throne; but there are certain forms and ceremonies indispensable to the becoming tamburetties. It also appears that tamburetties of Attingara possessed the sovereignty of Travancore from remote antiquity, until Raja Martanden Wurmah, who died in 1758, persuaded the reigning tamburetty to make over the sovereign authority to the rajas, both for herself and for all succeeding tamburetties. Raja Martanden afterwards attacked the neighbouring petty states, and between 1740 and 1755 subdued many, through the efficacy

of a body of troops disciplined after the European manner, by Eustachius de Lanoy, a Flemish officer. From the above date the Travancore rajas, by intrigue and force, continued to swallow up all the adjacent chiefs, until 1790, when, in consequence of a dispute about the purchase of Cranganore, Tippoo attacked his lines, penetrated to Virapelly, and but for Lord Cornwallis's interference, would have totally subdued the province. These celebrated lines were, by the natives, deemed impregnable; but they were really more imposing than effectual, as throughout the great extent of thirty miles, few points were closed in the rear, so that nearly the whole would follow the fate of a single point.

In 1795 one subsidiary treaty was concluded with the raja of Travancore and in 1805 another, by the conditions of which he transferred the management of his external political relations exclusively to his allies. As frequently occurs in native states, the dewan or prime minister of Travancore attained an influence over the country, which wholly superseded that of his master, and was exercised in so hostile a manner towards the British government, that in 1809 a war ensued, when his strong lines, guarded by a numerous army, were forced by a small detachment of British troops, and the province subdued with unprecedented rapidity.

In 1809 the failure of the measures adopted by the Travancore state for the liquidation of its debts, attracted the serious attention of Lord Minto, who addressed a letter to the raja notifying the impending necessity of assuming his territories, which was done in 1810, when the newly appointed resident, Col. John Munro, found that eighteen lacks of rupees remained due to the British government, besides five lacks to particular individuals. Not long afterwards the raja died and the throne was ascended by the tamburetty next in succession, the Elliah raja or heir apparent being excluded, his mother not having undergone certain forms and ceremonies indispensible to the becoming tamburetty. Between this lady and the dewan such extreme animosity subsisted, that added to his untractable conduct and embezzlement of confiscated property, rendered his removal unavoidable. The whole burthen of the government was then assumed by the resident, by whom, prior to 1813, the Travancore debts public and private were all discharged, and an adequate system for the collection of the revenue and administration of justice introduced. The result was so progressive an increase of landed resources, that in five years the amount of the revenue realized had doubled, although the rent had in many cases been diminished and in no instance increased. In 1809 the land revenue collected amounted to 7,21,687 rupees; in 1813 to 15,62,830 rupees; the increase originating from the prevention of abuses, and the procuring of sums formerly misappropriated by individuals. One great state disbursement in Travancore is on account of the temples, and for the performance of stated religious rites. The allowance for both of these were not only left untouched, but discharged with a punctuality never before witnessed in this priest-ridden country.

The second tamburetty having died in 1811 of the small-pox, apprehensions were entertained that the chief tamburetty, or queen regent, might experience a similar fate. She declined, however, being vaccinated, having already had the small-pox, but recommended the doctor to vaccinate her husband, and the two young tamburetties, who were accordingly inoculated, and thereby preserved from a distemper which then raged with great mortality in Travancore. In 1813 the queen was delivered of a son, and soon afterwards a white elephant was caught among the Shutamut mountains, to the great joy of the ranny and her subjects; the colour of the animal indicating an auspicious reign to the young raja. He was soon afterwards inaugurated at Trivanderam, where a throne conceal-

ed by scarlet curtains was placed in the hall of audience, which being drawn up, the queen appeared seated on it, attended by her sister, the second tamburetty, the children of the former rajas, and the principal Brahmins and state officers. A proclamation notifying the accession of the young raja was read aloud, and he was brought forward and shown to the surrounding multitude. During this ceremony the queen and every person continued standing, the British troops presented arms, and their band played God save the king, while the music of the Travancore army made a considerable noise.

The queen, however, was not long destined to enjoy her good fortune, for in 1814 she was delivered of another son and soon afterwards died. The resident in consequence recommended her sister, the principal tamburetty, to act as regent during the minority of the infant raja, which arrangement was subsequently carried into execution, when the young raja and the other children were placed under the joint care of the chief tamburetty and their own father, a person usually of little importance in the Travancore state. Consistent with British policy it was rather desirable that the dignity and consideration of the tamburetties should be augmented, as their influence tends to moderate the rash and precipitate resolutions of the raja, and the country still abounded with suppressed factions eager to profit by a renewal of intestine warfare. Towards the conclusion of 1814 all the objects for the attainment of which the resident had assumed the station of dewan having been accomplished, he resigned his official functions, but great difficulty was experienced in discovering a native properly qualified for so important a vocation. At this period the total revenues of the country were estimated at thirty lacks of rupees per annum, and the subsidy payable to the British government for preserving internal tranquillity, and preventing external invasion, about eight lacks of rupees.—(*Col. John Munro, MSS., Public MS. Documents, C. Buchanan, &c.*)

TRAVANCORE.—The ancient capital of the above province, situated in lat. 8° 25′ N., lon. 77° 33′ E., twenty-seven miles N.N.W. from Cape Comorin.

TRICALOOR.—A town in the Carnatic province, situated on the south side of the Panaur river, forty-three miles west from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 15′ N., lon. 79° 15′ E.

TRICATORE (*Tricatur*).—A small town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, thirty miles travelling distance from the city of Madura. At this place there is one of the finest tanks in the south of India, and on its bank stands a handsome pagoda, remarkable for the massy pyramidical top that rises over the body of the edifice.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TRICATOOR (*Tricatur*).—A considerable town with a lofty pagoda, in the Carnatic province and Tanjore district, about four miles N.W. from Tranquebar.

TRICHENDORE.— See TINNEVELLY DISTRICT.

TRIMAPOOR.—A town in Tondiman's country in the Southern Carnatic, about two miles and a half west from Puducotta; lat. 10° 21′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E.

TRIMBUCK. — A holy place and strong fortress in the province of Aurungabad, situated near the source of the Godavery, eighty-seven miles S.S.E. from Surat; lat. 20° 1′ N., lon. 73° 42′ E. Like most of the hill-forts in Gunterry, Trimbuck, owing to its lofty and inaccessible scarp, is impregnable to any army or artillery, however well served. At the base it is about twelve miles in circumference, and about four at its upper surface. The ascent to the upper fortress is extremely difficult, the principal one being merely a narrow stair-case, cut into the face of the precipice, and capable of admitting only one man at a time. In 1818, however, the gar-

rison surrendered to a British detachment after a very trivial resistance.

The sacred river, the Gunga Godavery, rises on the top of Trimbuck, whence it issues in single drops from the rock, where it is covered by a small pagoda containing various Hindoo idols. From thence the rill runs down the side of Trimbuck, passing through the town of that name to Nassuck, where it expands to a considerable stream.

TRIMIUM.—A confused village of Collery huts in the Southern Carnatic, situated in one of the wildest tracts of Tondimans woods, at the base of a small bulging fortified rock resembling Dindigul in miniature. The lower fort, enclosed by lofty stone walls, is on a level with the village, and contains several inhabited streets, the ruins of a palace and a pagoda of curious architecture. In 1820, this place was garrisoned by a party of fifty Colleries armed with firelocks. Trimium is the Tondiman chief's stronghold, and was occupied for a time during the poligar disturbances by British troops.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TRIMOOLAYA RAMPATAM.—A town of considerable extent and population in the Carnatic province, situated on the sea-coast of the Tanjore district, and bounded on the north by one of the arms of the Cavery, which separates it from the French settlement of Karical. It stands about twelve miles south from Tranquebar.

TRICHINOPOLY (*Trichinapali*).—A district in the Carnatic province, under the Madras presidency, situated about the eleventh degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Salem and South Arcot; on the south by Dindigul and Madura; to the east it has the district of Tanjore; and on the west Salem and Coimbatoor.

The country around Trichinopoly, although not so highly cultivated as Tanjore, is rendered productive of rice by the vicinity of that branch of the Cavery named the Coleroon. The cotton cultivation is also considerable, its amount, in 1820, having been estimated by the collector at 1,500,000 lbs., and capable of great extension. Formerly the size and situation of the city, the abundance of subsistance in the neighbourhood, and the long residence of Mahomed Ali's second son, Ameer ul Omra, rendered Trichinopoly the favourite residence of the Mahomedans in the Southern Carnatic. On the adjacent island of Seringham, are two magnificent pagodas, which have long commanded the veneration of the Hindoos. The climate here at particular seasons, on account of the quantity of moisture, is not so intensely hot as in other parts of the Carnatic. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in this district amounted to 4,93,739 star pagodas, and in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras presidency, the total population was etimated at 481,292 persons. — (*Fifth Report, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

TRICHINOPOLY.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the south side of the Cavery 118 miles S.W. from Pondicherry. This city was the capital of a Hindoo principality until A.D. 1736, when Chundah Saheb acquired it by treachery, but lost it to the Maharattas in 1741. From these depredators it was taken, in 1743, by Nizam ul Mulk, who on his departure to the Deccan delegated Anwar ud Deen to administer the affairs of the Carnatic, and on his death, in 1749, it devolved by inheritance to his second son, the Nabob Mahomed Ali. In consequence of this arrangement it sustained a memorable siege by the French and their native allies, which lasted from 1751 to 1755, in the course of which the most brilliant exploits were performed on both sides; but the extraordinary military talents displayed by Lawrence, Clive, Kirkpatrick, Dalton and other officers, combined with the heroic valour of the British grenadiers, preserved the city, and established the British candidate on the throne of the Carnatic. The energy

of character called forth on these occasions by the alternate reverses and successes of the contending parties, and the strenous and manly exertions of each to repair their losses, and once more to meet their adversaries in the field, so admirably narrated by Mr. Orme, are scarcely excelled in interest by those of the Peloponnesian war, as related by Thucidydes, both historians being in a manner spectators of the events they described.

The relative condition of the Carnatic since that eventful period, has been greatly changed, and the individual importance of this city altered with them. At present the fortified city or pettah encloses the rock, and is separated by the deep and strong current of the Colloway from a populous and extensive suburb, on the skirts of which are the dwellings of the civilians, surrounded by one of the finest military cantonments in India. The whole is intersected by excellent roads and shaded by a profusion of garden trees and others coeval with the station. The fortifications of the city do not appear to have undergone any material alteration since the days of Clive and Lawrence, save what has been wrought by the operation of time. A clear esplanade is preserved between the city and suburb, and the double wall of stone loop-holed without for musketry, the old round bastions, ditch, and glacis, still present a formidable line of defence.

The ascent is by a curious sort of staircase, partly covered and partly in the open air, at some distance from the ground. About eighty feet above the general level of the city is a well-built street of Brahmins' houses, and higher up is the celebrated pagoda, a huge, massy, and windowless pile. A pillared square building, containing a statue of Hunimaun, occupies the most elevated peak. In the southern face of the rock below there is a small excavation, something in the style of the second class of cave temples at Elora, and from its sculptures apparently of Brahminical origin. The hill comprehending all the above fortifications is a rock of syenite, about 330 feet high, and the margin of the green alluvial tract below is studded hereabouts with other isolated rocks, scarcely less remarkable than that of Trichinopoly. The Golden Rock, the Sugar-loaf Rock, the French Rock, and the more distant Eliniseram with its fortified pagoda, all names of classical note in the history of the siege. Close by in a Mussulman dirgah beyond the western wall of the city, under a plain slab, and no ways distinguished, lie the bones of Chundah Saheb, and in a sort of choultry adjoining are the burial places of Ameer ul Omra and family, but still embellished with silk curtains, and sanctified by the prayers of attendant moolluhs.

The population of Trichinopoly and its immediate environs in 1820 was estimated at 80,000 persons, who exhibit no particular feature of a more advanced stage of civilization than their inland neighbours, except a superior proneness to litigation. Having long been the capital of a Hindoo principality, a notion prevails among the natives that much treasure is concealed somewhere; but none has yet been found. It cannot, however, be doubted that a country like Hindostan, into which a current of gold and silver bullion has set for 2,000 years, must contain innumerable hoards of hidden treasure, all Hindoos being more or less hoarders. Travelling distance from Madras 268 miles; from Seringapatam, 205; and from Calcutta 1,238 miles.—(*Fullarton, Orme, Heyne, &c.*)

TRINCOMALEE.—A town, fortress, and excellent harbour in the island of Ceylon, 150 miles N.E. from Columbo; lat. 8° 32′ N., lon. 81° 17′ E., 128 miles travelling distance from Candy. Owing to the convenience of its situation, the harbour of Trincomalee is the most important in India When the violent monsoon commences all the ships on the Coromandel coast and western side of the bay of Bengal are obliged to put to sea, and then Trincomalee is their

only place of refuge. A vessel from Madras can arrive here in two days, and the harbour is to be made at any season. It was much neglected by the Dutch, the soil being barren and the air noxious, and having no continental possessions of importance to defend, the mere roadstead was of little utility. Neither did the grandeur of the surrounding scenery, so different from the flat swamps of Holland and Batavia (their standard of beauty), interest them. The harbour is accessible at all seasons, but for one half of the year mariners prefer Back bay, it being then equally safe, and of more easy egress. The depth of water within the bay of Trincomalee is remarkable: in some places not far from the shore it is unfathomable, and vessels may lie close along the rocks, but the rise of the tides are not sufficient for wet docks.

The great body of the town and fort of Trincomalee are placed at the bottom of a rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running parallel to the sea, and separating the harbour from two adjacent bays, one of which lies on each side of a three cornered promontory. The guns command both Dutch and Back bay, the first on the south, the last on the north side of the fortified rock. Fort Ostenburgh stands on a mount three miles west of Trincomalee, and protects the mouth of the harbour. The fortifications of Trincomalee form a sweep of above a mile in length, encompassing the base of a rocky hill on the sides connected with the adjacent land, the portion that projects into the sea being sufficiently protected by the steepness of the cliffs. No communication can take place with the promontory, except through the gates of the fort, and its situation is so advantageous that it may be rendered impregnable. The works both of Fort Ostenburgh and Trincomalee, were mostly erected by the Portuguese, with some additions by the French (who are great fortifiers) during the short period they possessed it; the Dutch did little or nothing. There have as yet been very few European settlers attracted to this place. In 1800, the inhabitants were mostly natives of the Carnatic, here named Malabars, with a small Chinese colony established by the exertions of Admiral Drury. Owing to the barren unproductive nature of the surrounding country, there is no export trade whatever, and even in the best seasons provisions and vegetables are scarce. The adjacent jungles abound with wild hogs and elephants, the latter having been shot within a mile of the town.

In A. D. 1672, M. de la Haye, the commander of a French squadron, attempted a settlement here, but being opposed by the Dutch, he bore away for the coast of Coromandel. From that date it remained with the Hollanders until 1782, when it surrendered without resistance to a detachment of troops from Madras, but was shortly after retaken with equal ease by Admiral Suffrein. In 1795, General James Stewart was sent with an army against Trincomalee, where the fleet anchored to the south-east of the fort, and after a siege of three weeks, preparations having been made to storm, the Dutch governor capitulated. The naval department, stores, and establishments have been since transferred from Madras to Trincomalee, and the fortifications have been occupied by a British garrison, but scarcely any thing is known respecting its present condition or progress for the last twenty years.—(*Percival*, *Cordiner*, *M. Graham*, *Davy*, *&c.*)

TRINGANO (*Tringanu*).—A petty state on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, extending from Kamamang in 4° 15′ N. to the river Basut, where it borders on Calantan. Inland it is bounded by Perak, at the central range of mountains. It yields also tin and gold in considerable quantities, the first equal to 7,000 peculs annually. The surface and general aspect of the country resembles that of Singapoor, being a succession of low hills, extending a considerable

distance inland, which have been found so well adapted for the cultivation of coffee, that in 1825, 2,000 peculs of an excellent quality were exported. In 1824 the population of this principality was estimated at 35,000 Malays, exclusive of Chinese. Indeed, it may be considered one of the most genuine of the modern Malay states, where that dialect is spoken in its greatest purity and perfection, although for many years it has paid tribute to Siam.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Leyden, &c.*)

TRINOMALEE (*Tirunamali*).—A town in the Carnatic, fifty-two miles W.N.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 11′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E. In the Carnatic wars of last century this place sustained many sieges; but no traces now remain of the bound-hedge or fortifications with which it was formerly surrounded. A craggy mountain, about two miles in circumference, and rising in the middle to a great height, has besides others, on the highest rock a small chapel, which is held in extreme veneration, from the persuasion, that whoever, except the officiating Brahmins, should presume to enter it, would immediately be consumed by subterranean fire rising for the occasion. The great pagoda is situated at the base of the mountain within a triple enclosure, surrounded by numerous fine choultries, two spacious tanks, and subordinate chapels; but the most remarkable object is the principal gateway of twelve stories and 222 feet high. The town of Trincomalee is extensive and populous, and the great street leading to the temple is lined with choultries and the habitations of Brahmins.—(*Orme, Fullarton, &c.*)

TRIPACHITTY.—A large village in the Carnatic, situated on the Vyaur, amidst plantations of coco-nut trees, about eighteen miles travelling distance S.E. from Madura.

TRIPATOOR (*Tripatura*).—A large open village in the Barramahal, 120 miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 29′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E. This is a populous place, well sheltered with fruit trees, and exhibiting a greater appearance of comfort than is usual in the Barramahal. In the vicinity there is an extensive reservoir. An attempt was made here by Colonel Read to introduce silk-worms and the manufacture of sugar, but both failed.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

TRIPATOOR.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, fifty-two miles S.S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 10° 7′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E. There is a fort here which appears to have been a place of strength, and was occupied by a British garrison during the poligar wars, but it is now in ruins.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TRIPATOOR.—A small, but well-built town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, about twenty-seven miles S. by W. from Madras. There is a Hindoo temple here of considerable note.

TRIPAWANUM.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, situated on the right bank of the Vyaur, about twelve miles travelling distance S.E. from the city of Madura. It is within the principality of the Shevagunga poligar.

TRIPASSOOR (*Tripasura*).—A town in the Carnatic province, thirty-four miles west from Madras; lat. 13° 7′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E.

TRIPETTY (*Tripati*).—The most celebrated Hindoo temple south of the Krishna, situated in lat. 13° 40′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E., eighty miles N.W. from Madras. This pagoda stands in an elevated hollow or basin, enclosed in a circular crest of hills, the sacred precincts of which have never been profaned by Christian or Mahomedan feet, nor has even the exterior of the temple been seen but by a genuine Hindoo. The reciprocal interests of the Brahmins, and of the different rulers under whose sway it fell, compromised this forbearance by the payment of a large sum of money, which in 1758 amounted to £30,000. The incarnation of Vishnu worshipped here has a variety of names, such as Vencata, Rama, and Tripati;

but by the Maharattas he is named Ballajee, and his attributes are supposed to have a particular reference to commerce. Crowds of pilgrims resort to the sanctuary from all parts of India, who pour in offerings of goods, grain, gold, silver, jewels, precious stuffs, horses, cows, and other articles, the aggregate of which, when converted into money, not only yields a surplus revenue to conciliate the powers that be, but also sufficient to maintain several thousand persons performing the offices of an idolatrous worship, which is here conducted with extraordinary pomp. Besides the above goods and chattels, the traders of the Banyan and Bhattea tribes of Gujerat are accustomed to present a per-centage of their annual profits.

The average of seventeen years' gross collections of the Tripetty pagoda, up to A.D. 1818, amounted to 54,564 pagodas annually; the total charges to about 11,000 pagodas annually. The highest stage of the gross collections was in 1801, when they amounted to 70,507 pagodas, from which period they have every year gradually declined, and in 1818 were only 34,458 pagodas actually remitted to Madras, besides which much had been embezzled by the native servants.

In 1801, while this temple was still under the superintendance of the nabob of Arcot and his officers, Ragotum Row Rajindra, finance minister to his highness the Nizam, notified to Lord Clive, then governor of Madras, his intention of expiating his sins by a pilgrimage to Tripetty, and requesting his Lordship's interference with the nabob to secure him a safe passage through the Arcot territories, and a civil reception on his arrival at the holy sanctuary. The governor accordingly issued the necessary orders, and the first object was fully attained, but the second was entirely defeated by the insolence of the nabob's servants, who had the immediate supervision of the pagoda. In consequence of the disrespect shewn to the British mediation, the nabob was required to dismiss the head officer at the temple, with which injunction he nominally complied; but Lord Clive was compelled to enforce the real execution of his mandate by detaching a party of horse to Tripetty for that purpose. Previous to commencing this expedition the nabob's financier presented, through Captain Achilles Kirkpatrick, then resident at Hyderabad, a paper of requests, the second of which was "That the high priest of the temple should be prohibited from appropriating to his own use any of the cloths or ornaments which Raja Ragotum might present to Sri Raggojee" (the idol) a larceny, which, from the precautious nature of the stipulation, that sacred functionary appears to have been in the habit of practising. —(*Wilks, Public MS. Documents, Moor, &c.*)

TRIPONTARY.—A town in the province of Cochin, nine miles east from the town of Cochin: lat. 9° 56′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E. This place stands on the east side of a lake, which formerly separated the possessions of the Dutch from those of the Cochin raja, who generally made it his place of residence.

TRIVALOOR.—A town in the Southern Carnatic, district of Tanjore, sixteen miles S.W. from Negapatam; lat. 10° 40′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E. This is a populous and pleasant town, situated a little way to the north of the Nagore river, across which there are two narrow bridges of masonry. There is a handsome square here of native houses, inclosing a magnificent tank, into which a peninsular choultry projects from the west bank, while on the opposite side is a lofty pagoda. South of the tank a choultry with a bungalow, belonging to the Tanjore raja, affords accommodation to European travellers. Certain ancient Tamul astronomical tables were constructed for a particular spot which Colonel Warren thinks was Trivaloor.—(*Fullarton, Warren, &c.*)

TRIVANDERAM.—The modern capital of Travancore, situated in lat.

8° 9′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E., fifty-two miles N.W. from Cape Comorin. This is the usual summer residence of the Travancore rajas and rannys; but the castle is extremely ill-built. The royal palace is large and well-built, after the European taste, and decorated with a great variety of paintings, clocks, and other European ornaments. The town is populous, and in 1785, in addition to the permanent inhabitants, had a garrison of 400 Patan cavalry, 1,000 Nairs, and 10,000 sepoys, disciplined after the European fashion.—(*Fra. Paola, &c.*)

TRIVICARY (*Trivikera*).—A village in the Carnatic province, situated on the north side of the Ariancoopan or Villenore river, sixteen miles N.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 3′ N., lon. 79° 13′ E. This place consists at present of a few scattered huts; but from the appearance of the pagoda, the interior of which is built of stones, the size of the tower over the gateway, which is eight stories, a large stone tank covering several acres, and another temple containing a colossal image of Ganesa, and numerous choultries, we may conclude that in some former period Trivicary was a place of great extent and religious importance.

The principal street can still be traced, and appears to have been large; but the Sanscrit inscriptions on the walls are now scarcely legible. The pagoda was much injured and the statues mutilated by Hyder's army, as it retreated from Porto Novo in 1781.

It is now principally remarkable for the petrifactions that are found in its vicinity, embedded mostly in the red calcareous material of a low ridge that rises to the west of the village. Many petrified trees of large dimensions lie scattered about, some as hard as flint, and others so soft as to be reduced to powder by the slightest pressure. One of these petrified trees is sixty feet long, and from two to eight feet in diameter. The petrified root of this tree is in most parts hard as flint, strikes fire with steel, and takes a much finer polish than any part of the stem. It also presents a more variegated appearance in its veins and colours, resembling agate when polished; and the red, when well chosen, can hardly be discriminated from cornelians. It is manufactured into beads, necklaces, bracelets, and other ornaments. The present growth of trees in the neighbourhood are principally of the tamarind species, from which circumstance it may be inferred that the petrifactions have the same origin. Tradition assigns a great antiquity to these petrifactions.—(*Warren, Fullarton, &c.*)

TRIVIDY.—A town in the Carnatic province, nineteen miles S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 46′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E. During the Carnatic wars of last century, the Trividy pagoda served as a citadel to a large pettah, by which name the natives of the south of India call every town contiguous to a fortress.

[illegible].—In [illegible] this was by far the most considerable pepper district on the west coast of Sumatra; the quantity was estimated at 10,000 peculs.

[illegible].—A village in the Mysore province, situated on the west bank of the Tunga river, lat. 13° 40′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E.

TUGHLICKABAD.—A fortified town with a strong citadel, situated in the territories assigned to the Mogul in the province of Delhi, about nineteen miles south from the city of Delhi, and named after its founder the emperor Tughlick. A few miserable huts contain all the present inhabitants of Tughlickabad; but the rude, massy, and stupendous ruins of its walls, palaces, and subterranean apartments, still attract the curiosity of travellers. Within a separate irregular fortification connected with the town by a causeway, stands the mausoleum of the emperor Tuglick Shah (who reigned about A.D. 1321), built of gigantic blocks of

granite, in the form of a truncated pyramid, the walls converging as they ascend, and still in excellent preservation.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TULCAVERY.—A village in the Malabar province, division of Coorg, near the source of the Cavery; fifty-five miles S.E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 24′ N., lon. 75° 35′ E.

TULGONG.—A small town in the province of Aurungabad, seventeen miles N.N.W. from Poona; lat. 18° 23′ N., lon. 73° 51′ E.

TULLAIT.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated on the Beeruch river, twenty-seven miles travelling distance from Jawud. In 1820 it belonged to the rana of Odeypoor, and contained about 500 houses.

TULLAJA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, eight miles from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 72° 11′ E.

TULLUCK—A town and district in the province of Mysore, twenty-five miles N.N.E. from Chittledroog: lat. 14° 24′ N., lon. 76° 51′ E. Up to 1820, inclusive, this portion of Hindostan was remarkably ill delineated in the best maps.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

TULLUCKWARA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1820 belonged to the Guicowar, and contained about 300 houses; lat. 21° 57′ N., lon. 73° 37′ E. It stands on the right bank of the Nerbudda, and has a small oblong fort of masonry enclosed on two sides by the town, but of no strength. A few horse and matchlock-men are stationed here. The Nerbudda is navigable for small craft from the sea to eleven miles above this place, a distance of more than 100 miles.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

TULSUNG.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifteen miles west from the city of Bejapoor; lat. 16° 45′ N., lon. 75° 34′ E.

TULWUNDY.—A town in the province of Lahore, the birth-place of Nanock Shah, the high priest and legislator of the Seiks; lat. 31° 15′ N., lon. 75° E., twenty miles S.S.E from Amritsir.

TUMLOOK.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated about thirty-five miles S.W. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 17′ N., lon. 88° 2′ E. The lands in this neighbourhood lie extremely low, and are protected from inundation by embankments, supported at a great expense; but which are occasionally broken by the freshes, and the adjacent country submerged. Tumlook is the head quarters of an agency for the manufacture of salt on government account, connected with that of Hidjellee. The article is prepared by filtration from the mud of the Hooghly river, and is esteemed of peculiar value by the Hindoos, as being extracted on the banks of the holiest branch of the Ganges.

Major Wilford was of opinion, that there were in remote times kings of Tumlook, or as he writes it Tamralipta, one of whom about A D. 1001 sent an embassy to China. He also thought that by the inhabitants of that empire he was styled Tamaronielieou.—(*Sir H. Strachey, Wilford, &c.*)

TUNGA RIVER.—A small river in the south of India, which has its source among the Western Ghauts, from whence it flows in a northerly direction, until it joins the Budra near Hooly Onore, thereby forming the Tungabhadra or Toombudra river.

TUNKAREE.—A considerable town in the province of Gujerat, pergunnah of Jumbosier. The river here leading into the gulf of Cambay, has a twelve-foot rise of tide at the springs.—(*Marshall, &c*)

TUNQUIN.

A kingdom of India beyond the Ganges, formerly independent, but at present comprehended in the Cochin Chinese empire, and situated between the seventeenth and twenty-

third degrees of north latitude. To the south it is bounded by Cochin China and Laos, or the Shan country; on the north by the province of Quangsee in China; to the east it has the gulf of Tunquin; and on the west Laos and the Chinese province of Yunan. The country known in Europe by the denomination of Tunquin, is properly named Nuoc Anam, which region includes both Cochin China and Tunquin. The first is also named Dangtrong, which signifies the inner kingdom, and the last daugnay or the external kingdom.

Our information respecting this country is mostly derived from the French and other missionaries, who at an early period established themselves in this and the adjacent kingdom of Cochin China. According to their narrations, the country of Tunquin towards China is wild and mountainous, and the boundaries but imperfectly defined. The passes through the mountains are shut up by walls, one side of which is guarded by Chinese soldiers, and the other by those of Tunquin. The latter country is subdivided into ten districts, four of which, at the extremities, are distinguished by the cardinal points of the compass. Mountains, extending from east to west, separate Tunquin into two divisions, the northern of which is considerably larger than the southern. A prolongation of these ridges separates Lactho from Laos, and others separate Tunquin from Cochin China. These mountains are granitic, and many of them terminate in sharp peaks.

The seasons or monsoons are divided here into the wet and dry, which are not, however so invariable as in some other parts of India. The rains begin in May and end in August, and are accompanied by much thunder. The currents run along the coast from north to south; the tides are very irregular, and are strongest in November, December, and January, and weakest in May, June, and July; but at all times they run with less force than on the open coasts of Europe. General appearances of the Tunquin shore indicate a retrogression of the sea, and an advance of the land; but there are some places where the reverse seems to have taken place.

There are few countries better supplied with water than Tunquin and the lower parts of Cochin China. In the first there are above fifty rivers that flow towards the sea, several of which by their union form the Donnai or Tunquin river, which is said to have its source in the Yunan mountains of China, and traverses almost the whole of this kingdom. It was formerly much frequented by European navigators, and was, notwithstanding the bar at its mouth, accessible to ships of 500 tons, but at present the entrance is so much obstructed by sand-banks, that vessels of more than 200 tons cannot ascend. Indeed in modern times there are not any ports that can be entered by ships of considerable draft of water, but shelter and anchorage may be found among the islands scattered along the coast. The interior traffic between Tunquin and the Chinese provinces to the north and west is chiefly conducted through the medium of the Tunquin river, which in process of time may afford a channel for introducing British manufactures into remote parts of China, which have no direct or cheap intercourse with Canton. The returns would probably be made in the precious metals, which are said to abound in the hilly country of Tunquin and the neighbouring province of Yunan.

The soil of this kingdom varies according to its locality. In the plains it is rich, light, marshy, and well adapted for the rice cultivation; among the mountains it is sandy, gipseous, and ferruginous, and abounding with stones of different sorts. The country, taken altogether, is one of the most fertile in this quarter of the world, and although populous, during a season of tranquillity can afford grain for exportation. The chief article is rice of various

kinds and an excellent quality; maize is also cultivated, and different species of yams and leguminous plants. The only European fruit trees that thrive here are the peach, the plum, the pomegranate, citron, and orange. Vines have been planted, but the grapes have not come to maturity. Besides those above-mentioned Tunquin produces all the fruits common to the tropical countries, most of which are described under the article Cochin China. The tea-plant of an inferior sort is said to be plentiful, and it is probable that by attentive cultivation its quality might be improved. Mulberry trees abound, and supply food for the silk-worms. The interior also contains much large timber fit for building, beautiful cabinet woods, particularly that named eagle-wood, of which a considerable quantity is exported, coco-nut and other palms, bamboos and rattans. There are mines of various metals, and iron ore is procured in a state of great purity. It is also asserted that there are tin mines in the mountainous tract near China, the working of which is prohibited. Particles of gold are found in many of the Tunquin rivers, but they are more abundant in the mountain streams of the Shan countries to the west. Salt and saltpetre are plentiful, and the first is reckoned of a superior quality.

Among the animals of Tunquin is found the elephant, which is the sole property of the monarch, and the buffaloe, which is employed for agricultural purposes. The horses are a small contemptible breed; goats and hogs are numerous, as also ducks and poultry, all very cheap. The rhinoceros is only occasionally discovered, but tigers of the largest size abound: there are also some diminutive bears, deer of all sorts, and monkeys of every description. The country generally, but more especially the mountainous parts, is much infested with rats. In Tunquin there are neither hares, sheep, asses, nor camels. The country swarms with vermin, reptiles, and insects, venomous and innocent. Some snakes of great size are found, but their bite is not poisonous. Fish are remarkably plenty, and furnish the inhabitants with a larger proportion of their food than they derive from the terrestrial animals; the fishermen in the maritime parts being fully as numerous as the cultivators. In addition to the common sorts of fish, there are turtle, tortoises, crabs, shell-fish, and molluscas, the substance of which being gelatinous and nutricious, is particularly agreeable to the Chinese, although loathed by Europeans.

The principal articles that compose the internal commerce of Tunquin are rice, fish, fruits, fish-oil, betel-nuts, arrack, salt, vegetable-oils, sugar, molasses, cassia, bamboos, timber, and iron, the natural productions of the country. The manufactured articles are cotton and silk, worked and in thread, writing-paper, wax, varnish, and brass and iron utensils. Among the live animals exposed for sale are elephants, buffaloes, swine, and ducks. At present, the external commerce of the Tunquinese is confined to the coasting trade. To Canton varnish, stick-lac, and woods and roots for dyeing, are exported. A species of root, called nau by the natives, and shu leong at Canton, forms the dead weight of all the Chinese traders from this country, as it is a very cheap commodity, and furnishes a red dye which might be greatly improved. Tunquin is the only quarter of the Cochin Chinese empire that yields the metals, among which are gold, silver, and iron, the latter so cheap and abundant that it supplies the whole kingdom. In the seventeenth century the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French, had factories, but they have all long since been abandoned. At present the Chinese are treated with more favour than any other nation, and are allowed to ascend the rivers a privilege also granted to the Portuguese of Macao; but neither are permitted to establish factories on shore.

Besides the articles above enumerated, Tunquin exports areca, ivory, calamine (which is carried to Japan), tortoise-shell, sugar and molasses, a cloth made from the bark of trees, reed and cane mats, cotton and silk (raw and manufactured), and fabrics of mother-of-pearl very neatly worked. From China are imported refined sugar-candy, spices, medicinal plants and drugs, hemp, flax, silk stuffs, mercury, porcelain, glass-work, hardware, and copper and iron vessels. Through the medium of the Europeans, firearms and all warlike materials are procured and monopolized by the government. Along the sea-coast in the different ports commercial affairs with Europeans are transacted through the medium of a bastard sort of Portuguese dialect, and this is also the medium of all political communications with the government.

On account of the fertility of the soil, intersected by numerous rivers, the population of Tunquin is much greater than any other part of the CochinChinese dominions, although it suffered severely during the long and bloody wars that took place towards the conclusion of the last century. In this kingdom there are said to be twelve principal cities, but their names and localities are difficult to discriminate. In 1820, Cachao, situated at about 120 miles from the mouth of a considerable river, was reckoned its capital; but the reigning sovereign resides in Cochin China, only visiting Tunquin occasionally, although it is the richest and most productive portion of his dominions.

Of the ten districts composing the kingdom of Tunquin, the central, named Xunam, is by far the best peopled. This division consists of a vast plain, watered, like Bengal, by numberless navigable streams, is supposed to contain half the population of the country, and in every respect resembles a Chinese province. The total of the inhabitants of Tunquin was estimated by a French missionary, about twenty years ago, at eighteen millions, but this estimate is probably greatly overrated, and he supplies no detail of the facts upon which he grounds his opinion. One tenth of the inhabitants of lower Tunquin are said to live constantly on the water.

The ancient code of Tunquin laws was much venerated previous to the last conquest of the country by Caung Shung, the Cochin Chinese emperor. By Le Roy, the missionary, it is represented as being composed in the most elevated dialect of Chinese, and full of uncommon modes of expression. At present, by the Tunquinese laws, punishments are decreed against all sorts of crimes with great minuteness, but they are badly proportioned, offences against manners and customs being more rigorously punished than crimes essentially dangerous to society.

The Tunquinese in their shape and features greatly resemble the Chinese; but having adopted the practice of blackening the teeth, their appearance is rendered additionally hideous. In this country the ceremony of staining the teeth with a composition takes place when they are sixteen or seventeen years of age, and the change is considered so singularly ornamental, that the natives assert that white teeth are fit for the mouths of dogs. Like the Chinese, the upper classes allow their nails to grow to an immoderate length. The females are marriageable at the age of twelve or thirteen years, and are very prolific. Both sexes are much addicted to the chewing of betel, an employment that suits with their indolent habits. Only extreme necessity can rouse them to any exertion of magnitude; and when their task is accomplished, they relapse into their prior state of sloth and repose. In this respect they differ materially from their Chinese neighbours, who are laborious and industrious by nature and habit

In Tunquin the flesh of many animals is eaten which, in other countries, is rejected with disgust. The natives here not only eat the flesh of

the rhinoceros, and particular parts of the elephant, but also grasshoppers, monkeys, horses, and dogs, esteeming the last a great delicacy; besides these they eat mountain rats, lizards, and some kinds of worms, and even snakes. Possessing so great a variety of edibles, they never use the milk of any animal in any shape, holding it in extreme aversion, which dislike they extend to butter and cheese. They have the same repugnance to fresh eggs, preferring those that are nearly hatched. Maybugs deprived of their heads and intestines, and silk-worms fried, give much satisfaction to this foul-feeding people. In conformity with the Chinese custom, they never drink cold water, but like it best tepid or approaching to the boiling temperature.

Throughout this kingdom the bulk of the people are not permitted to build houses of masonry, or of several stories; the larger edifices, such as temples and palaces, are generally constructed of wood, or of wood and brick mixed. The wall that separates Tunquin from Cochin China is fifteen feet high and twenty thick, and is extremely ill-built of stone and bricks, the latter for the most part merely baked in the sun. The roads are commonly very bad; but there is one of a superior description from Backing, the former capital, to Phuxuan, the ancient metropolis of Cochin China, said to be 500 miles long. The manufactures of this province are mostly the same as those detailed under the article Cochin China, and it is usual to find all the inhabitants of a village following the same trade. In this country, however, it is dangerous to be known to excel in any profession or art; as the talents of the artificer would be immediately put in requisition to work gratis for the emperor, for the governor of a province, or even for a common mandarin.

The Tunquinese being of Chinese origin their language is monosyllabic, being a modification of the Chinese dialect, but so much changed and corrupted that the spoken language is now wholly unintelligible to a native of the celestial empire, while the written character is well understood, being the same in both countries. Learning is here, as in China, confined to the class of lettered mandarins. Printing is known in Tunquin, but so little practised that some years ago there was said to be only one printing-press in the kingdom. The types are of wood and not moveable, every additional book requiring new plates and characters. Few, however, are printed, and these have in general a reference to law or religion. Their historical works are inaccurate and cannot be depended on. There are a few books on moral subjects, which are mostly translations or commentaries on Chinese books; and the sciences remain perfectly stationary, apparently in the same stage of advancement that they were a thousand years ago.

The religion of the Anam nations (Tunquin and Cochin China) is a modification of the Buddhist system, nearly resembling that which prevails in China, but blended with many local and peculiar superstitions. As in China, the Tunquinese have patriarchal veneration for their parents and ancestors, considering them as tutelary divinities who watch over and protect the families of their descendants, and possessing power in proportion to the sanctity of their lives during their existence on earth. To them sacrifices are offered four times a year, and every third anniversary of their death is celebrated with additional pomp. The higher classes are described as adherents of Confucius, who submit to the worship of images and other ceremonies through deference to public opinion.

Some of the more barbarous tribes of the interior are said to worship the dog and the tiger, both of which they also occasionally eat. Traces of this worship are found among the mountaineers on the eastern borders of Hindostan, as well as in the proper Indo-Chinese nations, the tiger being worshipped by the Hajin tribe,

in the vicinity of the Garrow hills. The Quan-to, an ancient race, who inhabit the Kaubang or mountainous range that divides the Anam countries from China, regard themselves as the original inhabitants of Tunquin and Cochin China, and consider the Anam tribe as a mere Chinese colony, which expelled them from the maritime tracts. The Quanto have a peculiar language, and write with a style on the leaves of a plant termed jiwa in the Anam dialect.—The Moi or Muong are also a mountaineer race, which speak a language different from the Anam, but it is not known whether the Moi be an original tribe or only a branch of the Quan-to.

The Christian religion was first introduced by the Portuguese about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and subsequently, while the French had commercial establishments, they endeavoured to promulgate the benefits of a religion which, even in its most debased and corrupted state, is infinitely superior to the purest of the Indian doctrines.—The English and Dutch had also settlements, but never interfered in religious concerns, their attention being wholly engrossed by their commercial pursuits. At an early period the Jesuits sent missionaries to Tunquin, and had made considerable progress, until being suspected of carrying on a secret political correspondence with the Cochin Chinese, they were expelled. Missionaries were subsequently sent out by Louis the Fourteenth under the character of commercial agents, who settled a factory, intended also to promote the conversion of the Tunquinese. On this event the Portuguese Jesuits returned, and disputes arising betwixt them and the French missionaries, the contest was referred to the Pope, who ordered the Jesuits to quit the country.

During the eighteenth century the exercise of the Christian religion was generally prohibited, sometimes tolerated, and at particular periods persecuted with the utmost cruelty.—The most noted eras of persecution were A. D. 1712, 1722, and 1773, when the Chinese had considerable influence; but after the civil wars commenced, the government lost sight of religion altogether. The year 1790 was the time when the Christian religion experienced the most favourable treatment, missionaries being then permitted to settle under the denomination of mathematicians.

In Tunquin and Cochin China the Catholic missionaries and their converts have suffered much more from the mandarins and inferior officers of government than from the present emperor, who is disposed to be extremely liberal in his religious opinions. He, notwithstanding, exhibits a repugnance to the introduction of all new modes of belief, as an innovation dangerous to a state where custom has the force of law, and an alteration in religion affects the political system.

In addition to these, other obstacles present themselves to the propagation of the Christian religion in Tunquin, among which is the obligation imposed on every subject of contributing to the support and worship of the national idols, and to appear at certain festivals which have both a civil and religious character. The extreme reverence paid to the manes of departed ancestors is also an impediment of considerable weight. The Jesuits tolerated their usages, from which it is not easy to detach the natives, but the court of Rome disapproved of this indulgence. Another objection of great moment with the rich, and with them only, is the renunciation of polygamy and the being obliged after conversion to restrict themselves to one wife. In spite of all these obstacles the Christian religion has in this region made great progress, and if the missionary statements be correct, in A.D. 1800 comprehended in Tunquin 320,000, and in Cochin China 60,000 persons professing that faith.

Tunquin, Cochin China, Cambodia and Siampa are recorded to have an-

ciently formed part of the Chinese empire, but on the Mogul invasion of China in the thirteenth century, the Chinese governors of the southern provinces took that opportunity of setting up the standard of independence. In this manner several distinct kingdoms were created, the sovereigns of which, however, continued to acknowledge for many years afterwards a nominal vassalage to the throne of China. The Tunquinese princes gradually assumed a greater degree of independence, and about A.D. 1553 are asserted to have subdued Cochin China.

For some time before and after the above era the sovereigns of Tunquin, whose title was dova, (probably deva,) were kept under by a series of hereditary prime ministers, named chuas, similar to the Maharatta peshwas in the Deccan and mayors of the palace in France under the second dynasty.

The subsequent history of this country is rather confused, nothing being presented to the mind but a succession of assassinations and revolts, and a perpetual fluctuation of boundaries. About A.D. 1774 a revolution began, which is described at some length under the article Cochin China, and after a sanguinary warfare of twenty-eight years terminated with leaving the Anam empire as it at present exists. Tunquin was finally conquered by Caung Shung, the Cochin Chinese emperor, about the year 1800, and has ever since been ruled by a viceroy delegated from the seat of government.—(*De Bissachere, Leyden, Staunton, Public Journals, &c.*)

Tuppel.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, forty-eight miles S. by E. from Delhi; lat. 28° 3′ N., lon. 77° 27′ E.

Tupookun.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, twenty miles S.S.E. from Bhadrinath temple; lat. 30° 29′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E. 6,182 feet above the level of the sea.

Tuppa.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty miles from Ashta, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.

Turanna.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-one miles from Oojein, the capital of a district which in 1820 belonged to Holcar; lat. 23° 18′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E.

Turwun.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the west bank of the river Pata, which in 1820 belonged to the British government; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 23′ E.

Tuptee River.—This river has its source in the province of Gundwana, near the village of Batool, among the Injardy hills, from whence it pursues a westerly direction through the province of Candeish and Gujerat, until it joins the sea about twenty miles below Surat. The whole course, which is very serpentine, and through a fertile country producing much of the cotton exported from Bombay, may be estimated, including the windings, at 460 miles. The shoals crossing the mouths of the Tuptee and Nerbudda are known to the Gujerattics by the names of Shorat and Deijbaroo. The first Mahomedan army that crossed the mountains south of the Tuptee, was led, A.D. 1293, by Allah ud Deen, nephew and successor of Feroze, the reigning sovereign of Delhi.—(*Scott, Drummond, 12th Register, &c.*)

Turivacaray.—A town in the Mysore province, fifty-two miles N. from Seringapatam; lat. 13° 10′ N., lon. 76° 43′ E. In A.D. 1800 this place consisted of an outer and inner fort, strongly defended by a ditch and mud wall, with a pettah at a little distance, containing about 700 houses.

Turon Bay.—A commodious bay in Cochin China, named Hansan by the natives, situated about 16° 7′ north latitude. The channel into this harbour is round the north-east end of the Hansan peninsula, having an island to the north. All the coast is safe to approach, the water shoaling gradually from twenty to seven fathoms. The bottom is mud, and the anchorage safe throughout. A small island within the harbour is nearly

surrounded with such deep water, as to admit of vessels lying close alongside to heave down or refit. At the southern extremity of the harbour is the mouth of the river which leads to Turon. It is about two hundred yards wide, with a depth of two fathoms, and its current into the bay sufficiently strong to excavate a channel through the sand-banks. The rise and fall of the tide is very unequal, at one time only six feet, and at others so high as eleven and twelve feet. In the neighbourhood of Turon, and along the adjoining coast, the winds have been found variable all the year through, the periodical winds losing influence near the shore. September, October, and November compose the rainy season, at which time the rivers inundate the low country.

The town of Turon stands about a mile above the mouth of the river, and as well as the peninsula, harbour, and river, is named by the natives Hansan. The houses it contains are low, and mostly built of bamboos, which are covered with reedy grass or rice straw. The opposite side of the river is divided into fields surrounded by fences, and cultivated with tobacco, rice, and sugar-cane. The market in the town is plentifully supplied with the vegetable produce of a tropical climate, and large quantities of poultry, especially ducks. The bay abounds with fish, and in some of the boats the fishermen reside, with their families, all the year round. Great numbers of flying fish are here taken by letting down into the sea deep earthen vessels with narrow necks, baited with pork or the offals of fish. All the mollusca, and other gelatinous substances, whether animal or vegetable, usually rejected by Europeans, are considered by the natives of this coast as excellent food, and highly nutritious.

This port was in ancient times the chief mart for the trade of Cochin China with the Chinese empire, and that of Japan; but prior to 1793, when it was visited by Lord Macartney, the city of Turon had suffered greatly by the civil wars, and was surrounded by extensive masses of ruins. In 1819 it is described as having once been a populous city, but at that time a mean, filthy place, with a well stocked bazar. In 1787, the peninsula of Hansan or Turon was ceded to the French by the reigning sovereign of Cochin China, in return for assistance promised him; but the French revolution breaking out, possession was never taken. The vessels that resort here at present are either junks from different parts of China, or craft belonging to the Portuguese of Macao. These last carry on a considerable portion of the trade of this country, where they dispose of the refuse of the European goods which they buy up in the Canton market.—(*Staunton, Barrow, &c.*)

TURRAH (*or Therah*).—A town in the Gujerat province, situated about half way between Theraud and Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 71° 41′ E. This is an open town, and in 1809 contained about 2,500 houses, 1,500 of which belonged to Coolies, and the rest to Rajpoots, Banyans, Koonbees, &c. To the north of Therah (at that date the capital of the Kakreze) the country is cultivated, but much interspersed with bush jungle, and deficient of water, which is procured from wells forty feet deep, some of which are brackish.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

TUTICORIN.—A large town in the Carnatic province and sea-coast of Tinnevelly, ninety miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 57′ N., lon. 78° 36′ E. A great proportion of the native population here consists of Parrawars, a class of native Roman Catholics inhabiting the sea-coast of this neighbourhood, and engaged chiefly in the coasting trade.

At this place there is a pearl fishery, but the pearls are reckoned inferior to those found in the bay of Condatchy, in Ceylon, being stained with a blue or greenish tinge. In 1810, the fishery of the Toolayeram Paar pearl-bank was rented to two contractors, who were to have ten days complete fishing with fifty boats,

for which they engaged to pay 34,300 star pagodas. This fishery produced 2,203,658 oysters, of which one-third went to the divers, and two-thirds to the renters; when completed it was relet,

For three days' fishing with sixty boats, for ...Pagodas 10,337
Seventy-five boats afterwards, for three days, sold for 15,787
Four hundred thousand oysters fished afterwards on Government account 7,045

The charges amounted to 550 pagodas, and the Toolayeram bank was then considered so completely fished, that nothing could be expected from it for at least seven years to come. The conducting of this business requires six weeks' constant attention on the part of the superintendent (usually the collector of Tinnevelly), and during its continuance the atmosphere is rendered insupportable by the exposure of so many millions of oysters (probably little short of forty millions) to putrify in the open air. The net produce of this fishery in 1822 was 1,41,886 rupees.

The pearl fishery at Tuticorin is distinctly mentioned by Marco Polo, which establishes the interesting fact, that it has continued nearly in the same state during a period of five centuries, and consequently that with careful management it is likely to prove a permanent source of revenue. Its existence is also noticed by Ptolemy.—(*Hepburn, Marsden, &c.*)

TUXAL.—A town in Northern Hindostan, nine miles S.S.W. from Subhatoo; lat. 30° 53' N., lon. 76° 57' E.

TWENTY-FOUR PERGUNNAHS.—A district in the province of Bengal, situated principally to the south of Calcutta, on the east side of the Hooghly river. In extent it comprehends about 882 square miles, and was first formed into a landholder's jurisdiction in 1757, when it was constituted the zemindary of the Company, and jaghire of Lord Clive. In 1765 a ten years' prolongation of the jaghire to Lord Clive was obtained, after which it reverted to the East-India Company. Since that date, from the quantity of waste land brought into cultivation, the number of ghauts or landing places, religious temples, and other substantial buildings constructed, it may be inferred that this territory has been progressively increasing in agriculture, population, and commerce.

In 1801 there were within the limits of the Twenty-four Pergunnahs 190 seminaries, in which Hindoo law, grammar, and metaphysics, were taught, maintained by the voluntary contributions of opulent Hindoos, and the produce of charity lands; total of annual expense, 19,500 rupees. At that time there was but one madrissa, or college for instruction in the Mahomedan law. This small district, although so close to the presidency, has always been greatly infested by dacoits (gang robbers) and river pirates. In 1815 the police was considered to be in a state of evident improvement; but under many disadvantages, owing to its local situation and to its surrounding the actual capital of India, and focus of attraction to the dissolute and dishonest.

The zemindar's profit here is supposed to be considerably more than ten per cent. on the land tax, some, in particular, not paying one rupee per thousand of the rents they actually receive. Many of the existing landholders are, or have been, the dewans of European gentlemen. Indigo is the most valuable commodity raised, but experience proves it to be an article of precarious profit. The planters are obliged to advance cash to the cultivators before a grain of the seed is put into the earth, and the latter is frequently influenced by the zemindars to pervert the money to other purposes and abscond. It is a fact, however, that the peasantry in the neighbourhood of an indigo factory always appear in better plight and more independent of the landholders than elsewhere. In 1814 the produce of the jumma or land-tax amounted to 12,49,103

rupees. The Hindoo inhabitants of the Twenty-four Pergunnahs are reckoned in the proportion of three to one Mahomedan, and the total number have been estimated at 1,625,000 persons. If to these be added the inhabitants of the Calcutta jurisdiction, computed by the police magistrates at 600,000, the total population within twenty miles will amount to 2,225,000 persons.—(*J. Grant, Police Reports, F. Fitzroy, &c.*)

TWENTY-FOUR RAJAS.—In northern Hindostan, immediately west from Nepaul Proper, is a country of considerable extent, which had long consisted of twenty-four petty states, whose chiefs were collectively called the twenty-four rajas; yet they do not appear to have ever had any common system of defence, or ever to have been connected by any common extraction. They all indeed acknowledge the superiority of the Jemlah raja, who had besides many others in a similar state of dependence: which conferred, however, scarcely any authority on the nominal superior, whose power appears to have been limited to exhortation, and the right of bestowing the tica, or mark of supreme authority, on the heirs of each chief, which they could also do without. His elevated rank, however, was never called in question, and his mediation probably procrastinated the subjugation of all the petty chiefs to one, as at last happened. According to the most authentic list the twenty-four Rajas consisted of the following chiefs, commencing at the Trisoolgunga river and proceeding westward.

1. Gorkha.	13. Lamjun.
2. Taunahung.	14. Kaski.
3. Palpa.	15. Malebum.
4. Rising.	16. Galkot.
5. Ghiring.	17. Gulmi.
6. Gajarcote.	18. Mussekot.
7. Dhor.	19. Tarki.
8. Bhirkot.	20. Khachi.
9. Gharahang.	21. Argha.
10. Nayacot.	22. Dhurkot.
11. Satahung.	23. Isma.
12. Poin.	24. Peytahn.

Some of these chiefs had entered into leagues of mutual defence, and some were connected by common descent in the chiefs, such as the Athabhai, or Eight Brothers, and the Satbhai, or Seven Brothers.—(*F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

TWENTY-TWO RAJAS.—In Northern Hindostan, west from the channel of the Rapty, an extensive region commences, usually termed by the natives the country of the twenty-two rajas, but respecting the interior of which very little is known, it never having been the theatre of European warfare, or explored by any native of that leading continent. Each petty rajaship is of course designated from the residence of its chief, but of most of these even the site remains a matter of conjecture. The following very imperfect list contains the names of some of the principal chiefships, the whole of which have long been subordinate to the Gorkha dynasty of Nepaul.

Chhilli.	Jahari.	Gajal.
Dang.	Dharma.	Bangphi.
Saliana.	Rolpah.	Jajarcote.
Malaneta.	Rugun.	Jemlah.
Satatala.	Messikot.	Duti.

U.

UDIPU.—A small town in the province of Canara, situated about three miles from the sea, near a small river called the Papasani, thirty-nine miles N.N.W. from Mangalore; lat. 13°25′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E.

UIRAKA KHAN PEAK.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, near a small lake, seventeen miles S.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 23′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E., 7,360 feet above the level of the sea.

UMBALLAH.—A Seik town in the province of Delhi, which in 1822 Captain Ross recommended as the proper station for the superintendent of Seik affairs.

UMBEITA.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles S.W.

from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 51′ N., lon. 77° 18′ E.

Umber.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, thirty-five miles S.E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 38′ N., lon. 76° 2′ E. This place with the small territory attached, although situated far within the limits of the Nizam's dominions, until the treaty of Mundessor, A.D. 1818, belonged to Holcar, and was governed by his officers.

Umlyalla.—A town in the Gujerat province, thirty miles N.N.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 14′ N., lon. 73° 6′ E.

Undana.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, pergunnah of Jawud, which in 1820 belonged to Sindia, and contained about 400 houses; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Undes (*Urna Desa*).—This is the general name of the tract of country situated between the Cailas and Himalaya ranges of mountains west of Lake Rawan's Hrad, and intersected by the course of the Sutuleje river, which issuing from that lake, flows to the north-west. The Niti ghaut, a pass through the Himalaya, separates the Undes from Bhootant and the sources of the Ganges. This pass is about half a mile broad, and almost destitute of vegetation, which is destroyed by the cold piercing wind that sweeps through from the table-land of Tibet. After surmounting the pass several piles of stones are heaped, on which sticks are seen adorned with rags of different colours, the offerings of travellers, and tokens of their having overcome so difficult an ascent. To the north-west Undes is bounded by Ladack or little Tibet.

After crossing the Sutuleje a few miles north of Deba, where it is eighty yards broad and three and a half feet deep, there are three villages, painted of different colours, which are the winter residences of the inhabitants of Deba and Dong. The adjacent hills, said to be rich in gold, are composed of granite of mixed colours (the red predominating), with horizontal strata of quartz, and small fibrous veins of a white material like agate, descending perpendicularly. Where the rock has been exposed to the weather its surface is broken into small pieces, having little more cohesion than clay baked in the sun. The gold is separated by washing, there being no fuel in the neighbourhood, or rather no wood, for there is an appearance of coal. In the bed of the Sutuleje there are many large flowering shrubs resembling the tamarisk, rising from three inches to eight feet in height, according to situation. The goats and yaks are fond of its foliage. The latter bite the grass very close to the ground, which fits them to crop the short and scanty herbage of these dreary mountains. On a plain partly bounded by the Sutuleje, about half a mile in length and breadth, are many shallow pits, made by persons in search of gold-dust, and also deserted caves in the rocks originally excavated for the same purpose.

The Undes abound with hares, which are longer on their hind legs, shorter in their bodies, and altogether smaller than those of England, but their fur is both finer and longer: when disturbed they fly to the mountains, but frequently stop and rise on their hind legs to look at their pursuers. They are very prolific, and their flesh well-tasted. Wild horses and asses are occasionally seen, and also the animal with enormous horns called the bharal. The horses appear to be about thirteen hands in height, and are very shy. Animals of a fawn colour about the size of a rat, with long ears, but without tails, are seen in considerable numbers, and also a species of bird resembling the grouse. Rhubarb is seen to the north of the Sutuleje, and the whole tract is famous as the favourite country of the shawl-wool goat. Toling, the residence of the head Lama, stands in lat. 31° 19′ N., lon. 79° 48′ E.

While the Undes continued under the Suryabans (children of the sun)

aste of Rajpoots, and also after it assed under the dominion of the Chinese, the independent Tartars of ahdack were extremey troublesome o the inhabitants by the frequency f their inroads, and only ceased eir depredations in consequence of e country having been bestowed on he Dalai Lama. On this event their eligious prejudices influenced them o desist from molesting the subjects f the supreme head of their faith. The last raja (whose father had been illed by the Tartars) was delegated by e principal people to solicit the prection of the Chinese against these epredators, which was accordingly ranted; but some time afterwards, s above related, bestowed, but proably only in name, on the grand or Dalai Lama of Lassa. This tract, s may be supposed, is thinly inhaited, and little cultivated. The Juiyus, or inhabitants of Undes, prore their grain from the Jowarries, e Marchas, and other traders rough the passes as far as Bussaher, nd they are said to eat but little nimal food.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

Unkie Tunkie.—A strong hill-fort the province of Aurungabad. The ape of the hill is nearly square, eing a solid rock rising from another ill, the sides of which gradually decline towards the low country and e pettah. The rock itself is scarped n its four sides to a perpendicular fall f from 150 to 200 feet, presenting on ll sides an inaccessible smooth bluff ck. The upper circumference of e hill is about an English mile, and erfectly flat, except at the east, here rises another small hill about 50 feet above its own base. The mmit of this little cone is called unkie, and is exactly 900 feet above e level of the low country. It surendered to a British detachment in 818, after a feeble resistance.

Upadrang.—A town in the Neulese territories, thirty-eight miles . by S. from Catmandoo; lat. 27° ′ N., lon. 84° 23′ E.

Uparah.—A fishing village in the orthern Circars, district of Vizagapatam, sixteen miles N.E. from the town of Vizagapatam. This place stands in a deep bay, with bold mountain scenery in the back-ground, and is one of the most considerable fishing stations on the coast. Above one hundred catamarans, besides several massoolah boats, may sometimes be reckoned on the beach.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ursana.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty miles S. from Alvar; lat. 27° 22′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Ussund.—A small town in the province of Delhi, twenty-five miles S.W. from Kurnal; lat. 29° 31′ N., lon. 76° 35′ E.

Umeerghur.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated to the north of Chitore, on the road from Nusseerabad to that place. This is a good sized town, in the centre of which are three temples ranged in a line, where repose the ashes of a rich merchant, their founder. There is also a manufactory of chintz, and the place in 1824 bore the appearance of prosperity. Above it, on a high rock, stands a castle, which in 1823 was conquered for the rana of Odeypoor from a rebellious Thakoor. —(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

V.

Vadagarry.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, seventy-seven miles N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 12′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E. During the wars of the Carnatic, from 1740 to 1760, this place was possessed by a tributary poligar, who gave a great deal of trouble, both to the nabob of the Carnatic and to the East-India Company.

Vadagherry (*or Vadacuray*).—A Moplay town on the sea-coast of the Malabar province, twenty-four miles N. by W. from Calicut; lat. 11° 42′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E.

Vakaleer (*Waculeray*).—A small town in the Mysore raja's ter-

ritories, nine miles S.W. from Colar; lat. 13° 4′ N., lon. 78° 6′ E.

Vadavati River.—This river has its source in the Mysore province, near to the Bababooden hills, from whence it flows almost due north, until after a course of about 200 miles, including windings, it joins the Toombudra twenty miles above Adoni. It is also named the Hajini and the Pajini.

Vaygaroo River *(or Vyaur)*.—A river in the south of India, which after passing close to Madura, and traversing the zemindaries of Shevagunga and Ramnad, is almost wholly absorbed in a large tank, twenty miles south of Tondi. The dry sandy bed of this river is of great breadth throughout its whole course, and after passing Madura, its waters are so diverted from their channel for the purposes of irrigation, that its bed at Ramnad is usually dry throughout the year, and only contains water when the floods are unusually great. (*Medical Reports, Fullarton, &c.*)

Valoor.—A town in the Salem district, fifty-two miles W.N.W. from Trichinopoly; lat. 11° 2′ N., lon. 78° 1′ E.

Veergoon.—A town and fortress in the province of Cutch, about thirty miles N.W. from Mandavie.

Veerungaum.—A pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, which in 1818 was more than one-half waste, and in 1820 suffered much by a severe frost, which destroyed the cotton and greatly injured all the other crops. The principal towns are the Capital, Mandul, and Patree. They are surrounded by high walls, those of the two first being still in good repair. The population of Veerungaum town in 1820 was estimated at from 15,000 to 20,000 persons, two-thirds Hindoos and the rest Mahomedans. The houses are well-built, few unoccupied, and the inhabitants appear in thriving circumstances.—(*J. A. Dunlop, &c.*)

Veesarabee.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-two miles N.E. from Surat; lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E.

Vehy.—A small district in the province of Cashmere, described by Abul Fazel as producing much saffron.

Velanghena.—A small military post in the island of Ceylon, district of Upper Ouva, which is probably the highest inhabited spot in Ceylon; lat. 6° 44′ N., lon. 81° 7′ E., forty-three miles S.S.E. from Candy. The summit of the Idalgashina pass, from Suffragam to Upper Ouva, is about 4,700 feet above the level of the sea; but Velanghena is two miles distant in a straight line, and about 700 yards lower down. On the 29th March 1819 the thermometer stood here at fifty-seven degrees before sunrise.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Velaur.—A river in the Carnatic of the second class, which rises among the mountains of the Salem district, and after a course of above 100 miles, and receiving various contributory streams, enters the sea below Porto Novo.

Velerete.—A cluster of rocks in the Eastern seas, situated to the south of the island of Formosa, which may be seen from them; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 121° 30′ E.

Vellore *(Velur)*.—A town and fortress in the Carnatic province, to which a district was formerly attached, situated in lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 79° 11′ E., eighty miles W. by S. from Madras. By the natives it is named Ray Ellore, to distinguish it from Ellore in the Northern Circars.

This was formerly a post of great importance, as it commanded the main road leading to the Upper Carnatic from the valley of Veniambady, which is the most direct route to and from the Mysore. The walls of the fort are built of very large stones, with bastions and round towers at short distances. A *fausse-bray* lines the walls between them, which with its embattled rampart and small overhanging square towers has a handsome effect. A deep and wide ditch, cut chiefly out of the solid

rock, surrounds the whole fort except at one entrance, where there was a causeway according to the Hindostany system; and in addition to the usual means of defence, the ditch contains alligators of a very large size. The fortress is so completely commanded by the hills, that a six-pounder can throw a shot over it; but the conquest of Mysore has rendered it now comparatively of little importance.

Vellore fortress is of such extent that it contains within a square of handsome buildings, besides spacious barracks, every necessary accommodation for a garrison. The great pagoda on one side of the square is used for a magazine. From the attributes of the statues, sculptured of blue stone, which still ornament its front, and the frequent images of the bull Nandi, recumbent on the ledges of the walls, it may be inferrred that Siva was the deity worshipped. The pettah of Vellore lies to the south of the fort close under the hills, and joined by connecting battlements with the old castellated works on the triple peaks above. It is a large and populous town, with an exceedingly busy bazar, containing many good houses, interspersed with a large proportion of Mussulman tombs, thickly wooded with coco-nut trees, but without any public buildings of note, the white-washed mosque of Chundah Saheb being the most remarkable edifice. Connected with the fortified rocks above the town is a barrier wall and fosse, stretching across from their base to the margin of the Palaur, with a gateway that commands the high road to Arcot.

The Mahomedan states of Golconda and Bejapoor possessed themselves of Vellore and Chandergherry in A.D. 1646. In 1677 Sevajee made an unexpected irruption into the Carnatic, and captured this place and Ginjee. During the war of 1782 it was relieved by Sir Eyre Coote in the face of Hyder's whole army. After the conquest of Seringapatam and the destruction of the short-lived Mahomedan dynasty, Tippoo's family, consisting of twelve sons and eight daughters, were for security removed to Vellore. Futteh Hyder, the eldest but illegitimate son, had twelve or fourteen children. The four elder sons were allowed 50,000 rupees, and the younger children 25,000 rupees each per annum. The females were nearly 800 in number, and were handsomely provided for, their condition being altogether much better than it would have been under any successor of Tippoo's. They had been collected from many quarters, and each furnished her apartment according to the fashion of her own country.

On the 10th of July 1806 a most atrocious revolt and massacre of their officers and Europeans took place, perpetrated by the native troops belonging to the garrison, in which, from evidence taken immediately after the event, it was proved the family of Tippoo (more especially the eldest, Moiz ud Deen) took an open and active share. The insurgents were subdued, and mostly put to the sword by Colonel Gillespie and a party of the nineteenth dragoons; and to prevent the recurrence of a similar calamity, the instigators were removed to Bengal. So late as 1820, Vellore still continued one of the principal stations of the Madras army. Travelling distance from Madras eighty-eight miles, from Seringapatam 202 miles.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Rennell, Wilks, &c.*)

VELLUM.—A town in the Carnatic province and Tanjore district, eight miles S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 10° 37′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E. There are here the ruins of a large mud fort, formerly occupied by a British garrison.

VENCATAGHERRY (*Vencatagiri*).—A town and zemindary in the provinces of Salem and Barramahal, but now included in the Nellore district; lat. 13° 1′ N., lon. 78° 33′ E. fifty-four miles W. by N. from Vellore. This place was formerly the residence of Redda Naik Poligar, and the ruins of his fort in A.D. 1800 were still conspicuous. The inhabi-

tants were then nearly all Telingas or Gentoos, as they are called by the English at Madras. This place is also named Vencatadri, and formerly possessed a celebrated temple. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Veniambady.—A village in the Barramahal district, forty-five miles S.W. from Vellore; lat. 12° 41′ N., lon. 78° 43′ E. This place stands on an island formed by the Palar river, and has a very pleasing appearance, being surrounded with trees, which are usually scarce in the Barramahal, and situated in a fine plain encompassed by hills. During the wet season the Palar frequently commits great devastation, and it rises highest when the rains prevail on the coast of Coromandel. There is a mud fort here, filled internally with native habitations, and at some distance to the west of the Palar are two temples of note, dedicated to Siva and Vishnu.

The estate or subdivision of Veniambady comprehends five villages, *viz.* Veniambady, on an island; Mulpater, Chenampettah, and Meetapalum, on the north side of the Palar; and Govindpoor on the south side. Mulpater is almost entirely inhabited by Brahmins, and is the most populous; Govindpoor by Lubbee or Mahomedan merchants. Weavers of the coarse fabrics termed gunnies, and of floor-mats, are the most numerous classes in Chenampettah, and cultivators at Meetapalum. In Veniambady all the indigenous races of natives are found.—(*A. H. Hamilton, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Vencatachellum.—A small village in the Carnatic province, district of Nellore, about nine miles south from the town of Nellore. At this place there is a poor mud choultry, and a good bungalow for the accommodation of travellers, situated on an elevated spot near the margin of a considerable lake.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Veeramally.—A town in the Carnatic, twenty-three miles S.W. from Trichinopoly; lat. 10° 39′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. At this place there is a hill remarkable for the detached masses of stone which lie on its summit. Many of these have narrow bases, and rest on much smaller stones, while some merely rest on a point, and appear almost to totter on their support.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Verapadroog.—A remarkable hill fort in the Barramahal district, sixteen miles S.E. from Ryacotta.

Verdachelum.—A town in the Carnatic province, forty miles S.S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 31′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E. In A.D. 1813, in consequence of the district court of South Arcot being established here, and the great want of accommodation for the public servants and their adherents, an advance of 2,000 pagodas was authorized for the construction of new houses and the improvement of the town, to which subsequently 2,000 more were added, to be advanced in loan to such persons as could give security for their repayment by instalments within a moderate period of time. Verdachelum was then small, thinly inhabited, and selected originally for head-quarters merely on account of its central position; but very soon, in consequence of some new arrangements, by which the boundaries of Trichinopoly and South Arcot were altered, the situation of the court at this place became extremely inconvenient, being placed within six miles of one boundary, and 120 distant from its northern limit.

Under these circumstances many places became more central and eligible, and it appears surprising that the choice of the stations in the Carnatic for the establishment of district courts should so seldom have fallen on towns, where there already existed structures of size and strength sufficient for the purposes of court-houses and gaols, and that, in substituting for the civil and criminal judicature of the native governments, our own system of judical administration, we should have had to incur the same expenditure, as if we had entered a country wholly uncivillized. Had

proper stations been originally selected, the subsisting and increasing expenditure of the judicial department, for the erection and repairs of court-houses and gaols, &c. would have been moderated; but a preliminary and essential error in local position, involves a total loss of all that had been previously expended. Neither does it appear that the discovery of defects, by subsequent experience, is sufficiently applied to the correction and improvement of future constructions; and after so many experiments the best model of a district gaol seems as little decided as at the beginning. Owing to the geographical changes, it is highly probable the court of justice here will experience another removal, on which event, after the sacrifice of all the sums expended on its public and private improvement, Verdachellum will revert to its original insignificance.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Versovah.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the sea-coast of the island of Salsette, fourteen miles N. from Bombay; lat. 19° 8′ N., lon. 72° 54′ E.

Veypar (*or Bipar*).—A town in the Carnatic province, on the sea-coast of the Tinnevelly district, 101 miles N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 7′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E.

Victoria Fort (*or Bancoot*).—A small fortress situated on a lofty hill near the entrance of the Bancoot river, seventy-three miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17° 56′ N., lon. 73° 12′ E. The river was formerly navigable for large ships, but the sand-bank at the mouth constantly increasing during the south-west monsoon, it now only admits the entrance of small vessels. In 1756 it was a piratical station, when conquered by Commodore James in concert with the Maharattas, who ceded it with nine poor villages in exchange for Gheriah. In 1820 Fort Victoria and Malwan were consolidated with the Southern Concan district.

Victoire Isle.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, covered with wood; lat. 1° 39′ N., lon. 106° 30′ E. On the south-west side of this island is a small bay or creek, and S.E. by E., distant three leagues, lies a small white island.

Vijayapoor (*or Bijeypoor*).—The modern capital of the Morung, situated in lat. 26° 56′ N., lon. 87° 12′ E.; eighty miles N. by W. from Purneah, and subject to the Nepaulese. This town stands on the higher part of the lower hills, and is so free from the unhealthy air of that region termed owl, that it is said the people here can eat seventy-five per cent. more than those in the low lands, a test of the comparative salubrity of different places frequently referred to by the natives of India. The fortress is always garrisoned by Gorkha regulars, and is the residence of a commander, who superintends the neighbouring civil officers and watches over the frontier. In A.D. 1774 the Gorkhas attacked Vijayapoor, and assassinated as many of the legitimate family as they could seduce within their power by treachery and breach of pledged faith. The last heir, aged only five years, was destroyed by having a loathsome disease communicated to him by a Brahmin, in place of the small-pox inoculation.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Vindhya Mountains.—The Vindhyan chain of mountains, by which the great Gangetic chain is bounded on the south, commences in the province of Bahar, from whence it probably extends to Ramisseram in the straits of Ceylon, near to what is called Cape Comorin by Europeans. One ridge of hills begins at Rhotas and Sasseram on the banks of the Sone, passes behind Mirzapoor and Allahabad, and between Banda and Singpoor takes a sweep to the south, then bends north to Gualior, and from thence behind Agra and Delhi, being the northern boundary of the Vindhyan mountains, but in this quarter it no where attains any great altitude. The portion of this ridge that passes through Bundelcund has a very similar appearance to the part

of the same range that passes through the Shahabad district in the province of Bahar, only it is less sterile and rugged. for trees in most parts ascend to the summit of the hills, and it is only in particular parts that the table-land is bounded by an abrupt precipice of rock, such as surrounds the whole eastern end of the ridge. On the summit of this northern range is a table-land of great extent, from 500 to 1,200 feet perpendicular height above the level of the Gangetic plain.

In the south this chain extends east and west along the valley of the Nerbudda river to an unknown distance east and west, and may be termed the southern wall or buttress of the elevated plateau of Malwa. It is only in a few detached spots, however, that it attains a greater height than 2,000 feet, but the Shaizghur, the highest peak of the Mandoo range, rises to 2,628 feet above the level of the sea. The city of Indore is 1,998 feet, and the descent to the valley of Nerbudda by the Jaum ghaut, about thirty miles to the southward, is steep and abrupt, but the ascent from the north is much more gradual. A good description of the Vindhyan mountains, with all their spurs and ramifications, is much wanted—(*F. Buchanan, Malcolm, &c.*)

VINGORLA.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, twenty-nine miles N.W. from Goa; lat. 15° 48′ N., lon. 73° 47′ E. This small section of territory, the total revenue of which is 3,000 rupees per annum, was ceded in 1812 by the ranny of Sawuntwarree.

VINGUL.—A town in the province of Lahore, thirty-four miles N.E. from Belaspoor; lat. 31°44′ N., lon. 77° 1 E. In this vicinity there are salt mines.

VIRANCHIPURA (*or Brinjeveram*).—An open town in the Carnatic province, seven miles and a half from Vellore; lat. 12° 54 N., lon. 78° 57′ E. This was formerly a large place, and possessed many public buildings, Hindoo and Mahomedan; but the whole suffered greatly during the wars of last century with Hyder. A large temple dedicated to Iswara escaped the destruction that befel the rest, owing to its being surrounded by a strong wall of cut granite, which excluded irregulars; and Hyder did not, like his son Tippoo, take any delight in demolishing temples. Viranchipura and Brinjeveram are one and the same, although up to 1820 laid down in the best maps as distinct towns, at a considerable distance from each other. —(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

VIRAPELLY (*Varapali*).—A town on the Malabar coast belonging to the raja of Cochin, nine miles N.E. from the city of Cochin; lat. 10° 5′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E. This is the residence of the apostolic vicar of the Roman Catholic Christians, who superintends sixty-four churches, exclusive of the forty-five governed by the archbishop of Cranganore, and also of the large dioceses under the bishops of Cochin and Quilon, whose churches extend to Cape Comorin. There is here a seminary, a catechumen-house, and a convent of bare-footed Carmelites, who have the care of the different establishments on the Malabar coast. The monastery was founded A.D. 1673.—(*F. Buchanan, Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

VIRNAGH (*Viranaga*).—A village in the province of Cashmere, thirty-seven miles S.E. from the city of Cashmere. The country in this neighbourhood produces apples, pears, peaches, apricots, cherries, and mulberries, besides the red and white rose, and an infinite variety of flowering shrubs. Except the mulberry, few of the fruits or vegetables of Hindostan are produced here. Near to Virnaugh a torrent of water bursts from a mountain, and soon forms a considerable stream. A basin of a square form has been constructed, it is said by the emperor Jehangire, to receive the water when it reaches the plain.—(*Forster, &c.*)

VISHNU-PRAYAGA.—A prayaga or holy junction of two rivers in Northern Hindostan; lat. 30° 34′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E.

VIZAGAPATAM.—This is the second district into which the Northern Circars were divided, and is principally situated between the seventeenth and nineteenth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Ganjam; on the south by Rajamundry; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the hilly and woody province of Gundwana. This district is mountainous, a lofty ridge running parallel and frequently close to the sea-shore, along nearly its whole extent, separated from another chain to the westward by a narrow, and generally cultivated valley. In many of the villages the peasants' dwellings present only a mud wall towards the street, within which a group of detached mud huts of a circular form are discovered. All the hamlets are well wooded; and in the better class the houses are neatly white-washed, and generally provided with low terraced benches in front, coloured red with transverse white lines.

The climate and productions so entirely resemble those of Ganjam, and its internal distribution into talooks and zemindaries is so exactly similar, as to render all details on these subjects unnecessary. Up to 1820 the cultivation of cotton on a large scale had not been attempted, that plant requiring a good soil and great care, and being injured by too much as well as too little rain. Most ryots, however, sow a small patch of land with cotton-seed for the immediate use of their families. The principal towns are Vizagapatam, Bimlipatam, Vizianagrum, and Bobilee. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 4,32,138 star pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras presidency, the total population was estimated at 738,393 persons.—(*Fullarton, Parliamentary Reports, Hodgson, &c.*)

VIZAGAPATAM.—A town in the Northern Circars, the capital of the preceding district; lat. 17° 42′ N., lon. 83° 24′ E. The hills here form a kind of promontory at what is called the Dolphin's Nose, a mountain about 1,500 feet high, which projects into the sea, and forms with those a little to the north a kind of bay. This range of hills continues along shore at a small distance from the sea as far as Tuny, where they take a south-west direction. A small river coming from the north, and turning short eastward to the shore, forms a kind of marshy estuary, separated from the sea by an arm of land, nearly in the middle of which stands the fort of Vizagapatam.

This is now a place of no strength, its works consisting merely of a thick wall of masonry, without ditch or other defence, the whole situated in the heart of the town, of which it in a manner forms a portion, and enclosing the zillah court, hospital and other European buildings, besides a wide and handsome colonnaded bazar. The barracks and other public edifices compose part of a square without the walls. The population is not great, but there are a considerable number of well-built houses, European and native, which stretch along the northern margin of the estuary in a long straggling line, shut out from the view of the sea by the ridge behind, and darkened by the foliage of the tamarind, coco-nut, and other trees. Two picturesque conical rocks rise from the extreme point of the peninsula, and flank the entrance of the harbour to the north, as the Dolphin's Nose does to the south. These, with the mountainous scenery in the back-ground, and the little white temples seen through the foliage, or perched on the most remarkable eminences, produce altogether a very striking landscape. Owing, however, to its extreme insalubrity, Vizagapatam has of late years been almost totally deserted, most of the European community having retired to Waltier, a village near the sea on the further declivity of the peninsula. During the ebb the surf here is very considerable, and as European boats, for want of massoola craft, are obliged frequently to

to go in to escape being upset, they ought to keep close to the Dolphin's Nose. At Semachillure, near to this place, there is a Hindoo temple of great fame and antiquity.

In A.D. 1689, in the reign of Aurengzebe, during a rupture between that monarch and the English East-India Company, their warehouses here were seized, and all the residents of that nation put to death. In 1757 it was captured by M. Bussy, and was acquired along with the rest of the province by Lord Clive in 1765. Travelling distance from Madras, 483 miles; from Nagpoor, 394; from Hyderabad, 355; and from Calcutta, 557 miles.—(*Fullarton, Orme, Johnson, &c.*)

VIZIADROOG.—A commodious seaport in the province of Bejapoor and sea-coast of the Concan, which after Bombay may be considered the best harbour on the coast, there being no bar in the river or hidden dangers. The common perpendicular rise of the tide is eight or nine feet, in the neaps five feet. The river is said to be navigable twenty-five miles inland for vessels under 200 fathoms, and near the mouth ships of less than 700 tons may anchor in perfect safety, sheltered from all winds.—(*Lieut. Dominicite, &c.*)

VIZIANAGRUM.—A town and large zemindary in the Northern Circars, thirty-five miles N. by W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 18° 4′ N., lon. 83° 30° E. This place is situated in a rich, undulated country, at the foot of a group of hills, with the large masses of the Eastern Ghauts about twelve miles distant. It is an extensive town with a spacious, busy bazar, but the buildings generally mean and village-like. A quadrangular stone fort, with four enormous round bastions, encloses the palace of the Raja, an open square in the centre, an arcaded hall of audience, reservoir and fountains, but the whole in a neglected state and without any pretensions to magnificence. To the south is a fine artificial lake, and on the high ground beyond is a small cantonment, where a detachment of Madras sepoys is usually stationed. Oranges in great perfection are raised in the neighbourhood of Vizianagrum.

In 1817, the zemindar agreed to mortgage his estate to government until the bonded debt he owed was discharged, which when consolidated amounted to twelve lacks of rupees, all European claims being disallowed. In pursuance of this object the government issued six per cent. bonds to pay off the creditors, so that it became the sole creditor, the zemindar receiving 80,000 rupees per annum for his subsistence. In 1822, the whole of the outstanding public debt having been discharged, the estates were restored to the zemindar.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

VIZIERABAD.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the south-eastern bank of the Chinaub or Acesines, fifty-eight miles N. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 23′ N., lon. 73° 57′ E. At some former period it appears to have been named Meuara.

VOLCONDA.—A town in the Carnatic, seventy miles S.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 21° 18′ N., lon. 79° 7 E. During the Carnatic wars of the last century this was a strong post, its principal defence being a rock 200 feet high, and about a mile in circumference at the bottom.

VYAUR RIVER.—See VAYGAROO RIVER.

W.

WADJO (*Waju.*) A state or confederacy in the island of Celebes, situated to the north of the principality of Boni. The original country of the Wadjoos is in the centre of Celebes, on the banks of an extensive fresh water lake, named Tapara Karaja, about twenty-four miles in breadth, the outlet to which is navigable for boats of twenty tons.

The natives of Wadjo have long been noted for their enterprize and

intelligence, and for the extent of their commercial speculations. They have colonized and traded in almost every island of the archipelago, from Manilla to Acheen, and from Siam to Papua, the parent country not being now the chief seat of commerce. In fact, they are the sole native traders throughout the eastern archipelago, all the other tribes confining themselves to coasting voyages. Their voyages commence in the beginning of the easterly monsoon, when they proceed westward until they reach Rhio, Malacca, Penang, and Acheen, the western limit, from whence they return when the monsoon changes. Their exports are excellent durable cotton cloths of home manufacture, gold-dust, nutmegs, Spanish dollars, birds'-nests, camphor, benzoin, and tortoise-shell. They return with opium, European broad-cloth, European and Indian cotton goods, unwrought iron, and tobacco

Besides these more important voyages, many subordinate ones are undertaken to collect birds'-nests, ornamental-feathers, tortoise-shell, and sea-slug or biche-de-mar, principally procured from the coast of New Holland, to which they send about fifty vessels of from twenty to fifty tons annually. A vessel of twenty tons, manned with twenty-five men, is considered successful if she have obtained 7,000 weight of sea-slug, all intended for the Chinese market. This traffic is, in fact, set in motion by the resident Chinese merchants, who advance from two to three hundred Spanish dollars, according to the extent of the equipment, securing to themselves the refusal of the cargo.

In A.D. 1775, this country was governed by forty regents, among whom women as well as men were admitted. From amongst these two chiefs were selected, one for warlike affairs, stiled patara, and the other to administer civil affairs, named padinrang. In addition to these was the matowra, or elected king, who acted as president of the whole, forming altogether a sort of federal aristocracy, the nature of which has not yet been rendered intelligible. Indeed the interior of Wadjo does not appear to have been ever visited by any European. At that date the Wadjoos were rich, commercial, and nearly independent of the Dutch. In 1814, one of the complaints against the reigning raja of Boni was his unjust and tyrannical conduct towards the Wadjo merchants, to the total ruin of these inoffensive people, the detriment of his own subjects, and infinite loss to the British goverment, by the destruction of the commerce they carried on.—(*Crawfurd, Stavorinus, Raffles, &c.*)

WAGEEOO ISLE.—One of the Papuan islands, situated about the 131st degree of east longitude, and within the first degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at ninety miles, by twenty-two the average breadth.

On the north coast of this island is a harbour formed by the island of Rawak, on which grows the ambong tree, the heart of which is an excellent cabbage; and here sago cakes, baked hard, are to be purchased in large quantities, as are also fish and turtle. To the latter the Malays of the Eastern isles have in general an antipathy. There are not any goats or fowls here. On the north-west coast of Wageeoo there is another harbour named Piapis, situated in lat. 0° 5' S., lon. 130° 15' E. It is formed by two capacious bays, where there is fresh water, and plenty of tall timber fit for masts. In both these bays there are good soundings, and on a small island named Sisipa is a pond of fresh water, with sago trees in the vicinity; the ambong or cabbage-tree also abounds. Along the northern coast generally water is to be procured from rivers or stagnate pools, not far from the shore. The gigantic Kima cockle is found in plenty among the coral reefs, and makes an excellent stew with the heart of the cabbage-tree.

On the west side of Wageeoo is a deep bay, before which lie many small low islands, mostly covered with trees. The largest of these is not a mile and a half in circumference, and some are not half a mile. These islets produce the sugar-cane, from which the inhabitants express the juice. The Mahomedans subsist in a great measure on fish and sago-bread, and eat biche-de-mar, which is also a favourite food of the native Papuas: it is eaten raw, cut up in small pieces, and mixed with salt and lemon juice. The natives assert that in the centre of the island there is a large lake containing many islands, but it is more probably a bay that deeply indents the coast, as in Celebes and Gilolo. The hills here are of sufficient height to attract the clouds, and cause the descent of a considerable quantity of rain.

The island is well inhabited; on the sea-coast by Mahomedans, and in the interior by the aborigines, who are mostly mop-headed Papuas. In all the harbours the Malay tongue is spoken and understood. A French voyager asserts, that in 1792 the inhabitants of Wageeoo had declared war against the Dutch, and joined with the natives of Ceram in an attack on Amboyna.—(*Forrest*, *Labillardiere*, *&c.*)

Wagur (*or Choorwagur.*)—A district in the province of Cutch, of which it forms the eastern portion as distinguished from the Runn, and has the shape of a peninsula, being nearly surrounded by that enormous morass and the gulf of Cutch. The interior is somewhat elevated and woody, with various small streams and watercourses falling into the Runn.

The people of Wagur are Mahomedans, and long noted for their predatory habits, which obtained for their country the distinctive appellation of Choor Wagur, or the Wagur of thieves. A considerable part of the district was formerly subject to the nabobs of Rahdunpoor, but these princes falling into decay, and being unable to enforce their claims, the tribute has not for a considerable time been exacted. In later times the rows of Cutch have claimed feudal superiority over the whole, but its chiefs appear to have been nearly independent, paying tribute when compelled, and plundering when occasion offered. It was in fact first thoroughly subdued by the British to protect the territories of their allies and dependents. In effecting this many native dens and fortresses were destroyed, and their predatory chiefs expelled; the remainder yielded to a foreign yoke in preference to the supremacy of their natural chief and nominal superior the row of Cutch. — (*Macmurdo*, *Carnac*, *&c.*)

Wakroo.—A village in the British district of Martaban, which according to native report was the original seat of the Martaban princes, and is still considered as a valuable outpost. In 1825 the stockade was found demolished by the Siamese, and the post deserted. The Wakroo river is here deep and muddy, and about forty yards across.

Walajanagur.—A large town in the Carnatic province, situated on the north-side of the Palaur river, sixty-five miles W. by S. from Madras; lat. 11° 40′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E. It was built by Mahomed Ali Walajah, and named after himself. To people it the inhabitants were removed from Lalpetteh and other places, which with the Mussulman princes of Hindostan was a common practice. It soon after had the misfortune to fall into the hands of Hyder, who did not spare it, but on the restoration of peace it was again fostered by the nabob. At present it is one of the cleanest and most neatly built towns of India, but the houses, though large, are only one story high, and roofed with tiles. Two excellent modern choultries have been lately built, one at each extremity of the town. A great proportion of the trade between the

country above the Eastern Ghauts and the sea centres here; and it is said a larger assortment of goods can be procured at Walajanagur than in any town to the south of the Krishna, Madras excepted. The transportation of merchandize is effected by large parties of inland carriers, who possess numerous droves of oxen, there being no internal navigation, and few roads fit for wheeled carriages.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Heyne, &c.*)

WALLAJABAD.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Chingleput, fourteen miles travelling distance N.W. from Chingleput town. At this place there are extensive military cantonments, consisting of two low ranges of barracks for Europeans, besides accommodations for native troops; but in 1820, so altered was its comparative importance, that only one regiment of Madras infantry was stationed here.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WALLER.—A small town in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, about thirty-eight miles travelling distance S.S.E. from Poona.

WALTIER.—A small village in the Northern Circars, situated in the bay of Vizagapatam, about three miles and a half from the town of Vizagapatam, with which it communicates by an excellent road across the intervening ridge. Below this village towards the beach is a group of houses, where the civil servants attached to the Vizagapatam station, and other European inhabitants, principally reside. The mountains along this part of the coast present a bold front towards the sea, forming a grand sweep to the north-east of Waltier, where they appear to terminate in an isolated conical eminence called the Sugar-loaf Hill.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WALAK. — A subdivision of the Gujerat peninsula, which having passed from the Catties to the Coolies, who in their turn were expelled by the Bhownugger raja, has since been classed with Goelwara.

WALURU.—A town in the Mysore province in the neighbourhood of Bangalore, which in A.D. 1800 contained 500 houses. Here are distilleries of country rum, into which the astringent bark of the mimosa enters as an ingredient. Their mode of condensing the liquor is very rude, and the spirit never being rectified by a second distillation, is execrable. The soil of some of the gardens at Waluru is remarkable deep, twenty feet of it having been penetrated to arrive at water.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

WANDIA.—A town in the province of Cutch, district of Wagur, situated on the north side of the Runn, immediately opposite to Mallia; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 70° 43′ E.

WANDIPOOR.—A town in the province of Bootan, about twenty-four miles travelling distance from Tassisudon in an easterly direction, and esteemed by the Bootanners a place of great strength; lat. 27° 51′ N., lon. 89° 57′ E. It stands on the narrow extremity of a rock between the Matchieu, the Patchieu, and the Tehintchieu rivers, whose streams unite at its sharpened point, and form a river of considerable magnitude, which takes the title of Chantchieu, and flows south through the Rungpoor district, where it rejoices in the name of Gudadhar, and soon afterwards joins the Brahmaputra not far from Rangamatty. At Wandipoor there is a bridge of turpentine fir of 112 feet span, without the least iron in its construction, yet it is said to have lasted 150 years without exhibiting any symptom of decay. Owing to the peculiarity of its position, Wandipoor appears to be agitated by a perpetual hurricane. This is one of the consecrated towns of Bootan, where a considerable number of gylongs or monks are established.—(*Turner, &c.*)

WANDIWASH.—A town in the Carnatic province, seventy-three miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 30′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E. In September 1759 the British troops attacked this place,

but were repulsed with great slaughter; it was however subsequently taken by Colonel Coote with scarcely any loss. In January 1760 a decisive battle was fought here between the French army under M. Lally and the British under Colonel Coote, in which the first were totally defeated, and never afterwards made a stand. The brunt of this action fell wholly on the Europeans of the two armies, while the sepoys looked on, and after it was over the sepoy native commandants, complimenting Colonel Coote on the victory, thanked him for the sight of such a battle as they never had before witnessed.—(*Orme, &c.*)

WANKANEER.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on an angle formed by the conflux of the river Mnchoo with an inferior stream named the Patalia; lat. 22° 27′ N., lon. 70° 58′ E. It is long and narrow, and surrounded by a great wall with towers and bastions, comprehending, in 1809, about 5,000 houses and a good bazar. A pious Mahomedan sheikh has here erected an elegant mosque; but the sacred recess for prayer not looking due west towards Mecca, the whole is rendered useless. Wankaneer lies so directly under a range of lofty mountains that it is entirely commanded, and during the rains the Patalia inundates the streets. In the dry season, however, it diminishes to a slender stream in a low bed, owing to which circumstance its name is derived from Patala, the infernal regions.—(*Macmurdo, Walker, &c.*)

WANNY.—A district in the interior of Ceylon, situated towards Trincomalee, in the north-eastern quarter. This is a fine flat country, and well adapted for the cultivation of rice, which from remaining vestiges would appear to have been formerly raised in large quantities. The ruins of 600 tanks, some of great extent, are still to be seen; and the territory seems to have been in a state of great prosperity prior to its occupation by the Dutch, since which event it has declined. At different periods its Wannys or princes, taking advantage of the wars between the Candian sovereigns and their European enemies, endeavoured to establish an authority independent of both; but they finally, after their country had been desolated by all parties, submitted to the Dutch. The road through Wanny from Vertavivo to Molletivo presents the shortest route between Columbo and Trincomalee, so that its inhabitants formerly sustained much pillage and vexation from the troops and their followers; but these atrocities were entirely suppressed during the government of the Earl of Guilford, and the district has ever since been in a progressive state of improvement.—(*Bertolacci, &c.*)

WARANGOL.—An ancient city in the Hydrabad province, seventy-seven miles N.E. from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 17° 54′ N., lon. 79° 34′ E. This place was founded A.D. 1067, at which era it is supposed to have been the metropolis of Andray or Telinga. In 1309 Allah ud Deen, the Delhi sovereign, despatched an army against it by the route of Bengal, without success; but it was subsequently taken from the Hindoos by Aligh Khan. It, however, again reverted to that ancient people, and in 1421 its raja was slain in battle, and the place captured by Khan Azim Khan, the general of Ahmed Shah Bhamenee, sultan of the Deccan. By different authors the name is variously written Woragulla, Warankul, Wurrungal, Warangol, and Arenkil. At present the city, or rather its remains, and the district attached, belong to the Nizam.—(*Scott, Ferishta, Wilks, &c.*)

WARGONG.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, twenty-two miles N.W. from Poona. It stands on the high road from Poona to Bombay, and is one of the stations at which a bungalow is kept up by government for the use of travellers, a most important accommodation in a country where

there are not any inns.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WARIOR.—The site of an extensive cavalry cantonment, of late years unoccupied, about two miles west of Trichinopoly in the Carnatic, and connected with it by a road or elevated causeway across the intervening rice fields.

WAROOT.—A large and well-built village in the province of Bejapoor, and principality of Satara, five miles N.E. from the town of Satara. The Krishna here is a dark-coloured mountain-stream about a foot deep in the beginning of May, previous to the commencement of the wet monsoon.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

WARREE (*or Sawunt warree*).—A small principality in the province of Bejapoor, the capital of which stands in lat. 15° 56′ N., lon. 74′ E., twenty-nine miles north from Goa.

The state generally known by the name of Sawuntwarree, is a tract of country situated principally between the sea and the great Western Ghaut mountains, about forty miles in length, extending from the Portuguese settlement of Goa on the south, to the British possessions in Malwan on the north, and inland about twenty-five miles from the mountains. The general aspect of the surface is rocky and barren, and except in those parts where with much labour and perseverance, it has been cleared for cultivation, it is close, difficult of access, and covered with jungle. The country in the vicinity of the sea-coast is a succession of rocky heights, on which frequently for many miles not a trace of vegetation is to be seen, and the few spots among them that have been brought under tillage yield only the poorer sort of grain. The population of this territory is scanty, but its defensive strength considerable, every peasant being liable at all seasons to be called for his services. The maritime portion has been so long noted for piracy, that in old maps the tract is always designated as the "pirate coast."

This petty state dates its commencement about 1648, during the sway of Sevajee, at which period the Sawunts of Warree, were deshmookhs and jaghiredars of the adjoining Portuguese district of Goa. Luckin Sawunt, who afterwards raised himself into notice, was then a naik in the service of the Maharatta soubahdar; but having joined the Moguls, and signalized himself, he was rewarded by being made chief of the five prants, which title the rajes of Warree still bear. After Sambajee, the son and successor of Sevajee, was taken prisoner, the Mogul forces left the country, and Luckin Sawunt established himself at Warree, where he was succeeded by his son Kemp Sawunt, who extended his authority over the whole of the Coodal prant, with the exception of Soonderdroog. The deep-rooted enmity between the Colapoor and Warree families traces back its origin to the above era, and has subsisted with various alternations of success ever since, to the great detriment of their country and its inhabitants.

With the British government this petty state first came into contact about the beginning of the 19th century. In 1809, when Positra, in the Gujerat Peninsula, was taken possession of, it was the last piratical station between the gulf of Cutch and Cape Comorin, the intervening space of sea-coast excepted, adjoining to Goa, and belonging to Kemp Sawunt, chieftain of Warree. Against this marine depredator, circumstances had never permitted the Bombay government to proceed further, than by keeping up an annual blockade of his ports, at a considerable expense, which, together with the perturbed condition of the interior, secured an immunity, not very creditable to British commerce, along the coast of the Concan. In 1812, with a view to the further extirpation of piracy, treaties were entered into with the rajas of Colapoor and the Bhonsla or chief of Warree, when the fort and island of Soonderdroog (or Malwan), with the three dependent forts of Puddumghur

Rajcote, and Sirjicote, were ceded by the first, and the fort of Vingorla by the ranny of Sawunt Warree. These cessions were principally considered of importance, as contributing to the suppression of piracy on the west coast of India, and affording complete protection to the commerce of Bombay, without having recourse to the inconvenient and expensive measure of annually stationing a blockading squadron for that purpose. They had also the additional advantage of coercing the adjacent native powers, and preventing the intrusion of foreign enemies.

In 1814, the divisions of Maloondy and Varada were taken possession of by the British troops, having been ceded by the raja of Colapoor, yet the ranny of Sawunt Warree, Durgabhye Bhonsla, continued to make collections, and persevered with most extraordinary obstinacy until compelled to desist by main force. After this she endeavoured to cut off all intercourse between Malwan and Goa, through the Warree territories, and to levy duties on the Carhee Creek; indeed the distracted state of her government was such, that she possessed little or no control over the troops and officers who received her pay.

In 1815, the long pending disputes between the two rival princesses of Sawunt Warree, the rannies Durgabhye and Dadeebhye, and their partisans, broke out into hostilities, and both parties used every artifice to procure the support of the British government, but every encouragement was withheld. These commotions also established a very considerable migration of the inhabitants, both to the British and Portuguese territories, and consequences soon ensued detrimental to the tranquillity of both countries, as parties of armed men crossed the boundaries, both in pursuit of each other, and for the purpose of predatory aggression. The ranny Durgabhye, who had ostensible possession of the throne, disavowed all these acts, and acknowledged her inability to punish them, and application to the Peshwa, her feudal superior, was found to be equally unavailing.

Under these tantalizing circumstances no remedy appeared, except the endeavouring by remonstrance at Warree, to remove each ground of complaint as it occurred. In reality it did not appear that any measure short of the actual subjugation of Warree could prevent the recurrence of these offences, and such a conquest would only lead to similar aggressions from our new neighbours, the half obedient dependents of the greater Maharatta chieftians, contiguous to that city. The reduction of Warree and its numerous fortresses, would have required two battalions of native infantry and five hundred Europeans, with a proportionate artillery; Rairee, at least, could not be attempted with less, and supposing all these captured, the enemy might retire to the hill jungles, and from thence harass the plains, until all the forts among the ghaut mountains, and practicable roads cut through the jungles. Supporting one party against the other, would be nearly as expensive and inconvenient as taking the country, and involve the British government in all the disputes of the restless factions at Sawunt Warree.

The above train of reasoning induced the British government to tolerate the aggressions of Sawunt Warree, which were continued throughout the whole of 1817, in which year also that pugnacious state commenced hostilities against the Portuguese. These disturbances also continued throughout the greater part of 1818, until at length complaint and remonstrance being found unavailing, a British detachment under General Sir William Keir was marched against Warree, the capital, which along with the fortresses of Newtee and Rairee, were compelled to surrender. —(*Public MS. Documents, Elphinstone, Dunlop, &c.*)

WARRIOR.—A town in the Carnatic, fifty-six miles S.S.W. from

Pondicherry; lat. 11° 19′ N., lon. 79° 23′ E.

WARRUNAH.—A town in the province of Berar, fifty-two miles N.N.E. from Nandore; lat. 19° 37′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E.

WARYE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, and division of Jutwar, twelve miles S.W. from Rahdunpoor; lat. 23° 33′ N., lon. 71° 22′ E. In 1809 this was an open town, protected by a ditch almost filled up with thorns and rubbish; in 1820 it was almost a heap of ruins. In 1809 it possessed 1,000 horse and 4,000 foot; in 1820, nine horse and 755 foot. In 1820 the chief people of Warye were Baloochies of the Jhut tribe, who used to confederate with the Khoza banditti.—(*Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

WASSOTAH.—A strong hill fortress in the province of Bejapoor, situated among the Western Ghauts, thirty miles S.S.W. from Satara. It stands at the end of a narrow valley, and is in figure a triangle, the base to the east, the other two sides descend into the Concan, a perpendicular sheet of rock from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high. Old Wassotah is a rock higher than new Wassotah, connected at its base with the latter, its summit being distant about 1,000 yards, commanding and enfilading the eastern face of new Wassotah, but over a chasm of 1,500 feet in depth. The adjacent scenery is of the grandest description. Most of the hills that here extend west into the Concan present nearly perpendicular faces of rock, from 500 to 2,000 feet high, while the view to the east presents a striking contrast to the aspect of the west. Mountains appear to rise on mountains; the narrow valleys and slopes are covered with forest trees and thick underwood, through which rivulets are perceptible, while the summits occasionally present patches of flowering shrubs. These forests abound with the pepper-vine, the Malacca-cane (of which walking-sticks are made); several trees of bastard nutmeg, with fruit on them, are seen, besides numerous varieties of flowering shrubs and aromatic plants.

Wassotah was besieged during the war of 1818, when the Satara raja joined Mr. Elphinstone in the camp on the 4th of April; but the Peshwa's commandant, Bhasker Punt, still refusing to surrender, the batteries were opened at the risk of sacrificing the families of the Satara raja, as also two British officers confined in the fort. The mortar-battery being erected on old Wassotah, the descent of every shell could be observed, and appeared to have little effect; yet on the ensuing morning the commandant and garrison unexpectedly tendered their submission, and gave up a fortress, which from its immense natural strength might otherwise have been a work of much time and difficulty. By this event the wives of the Satara princes were restored to their husbands, along with the family jewels to the value of three lacks of rupees. Fortunately only two female servants were wounded by the explosion of the shells.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

WASTARA.—A village in the Mysore province, sixty-five miles N.E. from Mangalore; lat. 13° 14′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. There is an old fort here said to have been constructed during the flourishing period of the Bednore government.—(*Colonel Lambton, &c.*)

WAUGUR.—A large division of the Gujerat province, of which it occupies the north-eastern corner, being bounded on the north by Ajmeer, and on the east by Malwa. The principal towns are Doongurpoor, Banswara, and Gullicote, and a considerable proportion of the inhabitants of the Bheel tribes. The Mahy is the principal river, and the Guicowar the feudal superior.

WAWJPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, forty-five miles E. by N. from Surat; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 73° 47′ E.

WAUSSIM.—A division of the

Berar province, situated above the ghauts, and described by Abul Fazel, in 1582, under the name of Bassum. The principal river is the Payn Gunga, which flows through an extensive valley, and afterwards falls into the Wurda. The town of Waussim stands in lat. 20°10′ N., lon. 77° 22′ E.; 83 miles E.N.E. from Jalna.

Wawul.—A town in the province of Gujerat, a few miles S.E. from Rahdunpoor. It stands on the banks of the Sereswati, a small stream of salt water, which during the rains overflows its banks, but at other seasons is every where fordable.

Weerawow.—A town in the province of Mooltan, division of Chaulchkaun, subdivision of Parkur, of which last it is the second largest.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Wellasey.—One of the ancient Candian provinces in the island of Ceylon, situated to the east of the capital. Although its surface is not very low, its climate, like that of the plains, is subject to long drought and periodical sickness. The most unhealthy months are July, August, and September, when the wind is generally from the north-west, and the country parched for the want of rain. In A.D. 1819, in three months, 205 European troops, stationed at this division, died out of 250, including five officers, and only two of the whole escaped having the sickness. Compared with the neighbouring districts, the surface of Wellasey is almost level, and presents a mixture of clear open tracts and jungle.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Wellesley Province.—A tract of territory possessed by the British on the main-land of the Malay principality, and division of Queda, directly opposite to Penang. It extends from the south bank of the Qualla Muda, to the north bank of the Krian river, lat. 5° 20′ N., a space of thirty-five miles, but its breadth inland does not exceed four miles. In 1824 it contained 14,000 inhabitants, and was expected to produce 48,000 bags of rice. The principal British settlement is at Bukkah, a stream five miles south from the Qualla Muda, and accessible at springs to very small prows. The British superintendent resides at Bukkah.

Werrear.—A district in the province of Gujerat, extending along the northern frontier. The country between Rahdunpoor and Patree, on the north and south, and from Beecharjer to the banks of the Runn, is called Wudyar, or Wurryar, for which name the inhabitants say it is indebted to the excellent quality of its grass, it being resorted to by immense herds of cattle sent to pasture on the banks of the Runn. Wadyar, or Wandyar in the Gujerattee language signifies a herdsman, by which class the banks of the Runn were formerly inhabited.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Wetter Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, lying off the north coast of Timor, about the eighth degree of south latitude, the interior of which has never been explored. In length it may be estimated at sixty-five miles, by twenty, the average breadth.

Weyre.—A town in the province of Agra, principality of Bhurtpoor, situated on the high road from Jeypoor to Agra, fifty miles west from the latter city; lat. 27° 2′ N., lon. 77° 2′ E. The wall here is of earth, well flanked by some circular bastions, with a wide but shallow ditch, filled up in several places, and without a glacis. There are loop-holes for musketry in the parapets of the bastion, but in 1824 there were not any cannon. Within the gateway is a narrow bazar, with its usual accompaniments of mud huts, heaps of grocery, fat banyans, scolding women, Brahminy bulls, and much uncleanness. Farther on is a large handsome Hindoo house of stone, coated with marble chunam, and a flower garden watered by stone channels, conducted from a large tank, with

several fountains round it. At the further end of the garden is a moat surrounding an old stone-built castle, with round towers, and high ramparts of stone. Two high arches covered with gods and goddesses, and a small college of religious mendicants, are the remaining curiosities of Weyre. There are many Mahomedans here who seem to agree perfectly well with their Jaut masters.—(*Bishop Heber, &c.*)

WHARTOO (*or Wartoo*).—A high mountain in Northern Hindostan, seven miles S E. from Koteghur; lat. 31° 15′ N., lon. 77° 29′ E. The extreme height of the peak is about 10,673 feet above the level of the sea, yet it is wooded to the summit, composed of quartz and gneiss. There are here two small watch-houses built of unhewn stones, in which the Gorkhas formerly kept a small party of infantry. The chief objection to Whartoo, as a military post, is the want of water. It was retained by the British government at the peace of 1815.—(*Hodgson, Herbert, Fraser, &c.*)

WHYE.—A Hindoo place of pilgrimage in the province of Bejapoor, near to the sources of the Krishna, thirty-five miles south from Poona; lat. 18° N., lon. 74° 5′ E.

WOJAREE.—A village in the province of Ajmeer, situated on the Beerach, four miles from Fullait. In 1820, it belonged to the rana of Odeypoor, and contained about 150 houses.

WOMBINELLORE.—A town in the province of Salem, 106 miles S.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 40′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E.

WOONY.—A town in the province of Berar, situated a little above the sungam, or confluence of the Wurda and Payn Gunga rivers; lat. 20° 10′ N., lon. 78° 59′ E.

WONE.—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the province of Candeish, as in 1818 it had not more than seventy tolerable houses remaining. It still however contains eight large and four small pagodas, of a pyramidical form, with a superfluity of carving and decorations, and enclosing colossal statues. These temples are built of hewn granite, without cement, and clamped with iron every three or four inches. Some of the blocks supporting the the upper part of the doorways and entablatures are fourteen feet long, and thick in proportion. The inscriptions appear to be of Jain origin, at least not from a Brahminical source. —(*Dangerfield, Erskine, &c.*)

WOORATLA.—A town in the Northern Circars, forty-one miles S.W. from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 33′ N., lon. 82° 48′ E.

WOW.—A fortified town in the province of Gujerat, division of Neyer, about ten miles S.W. from Theraud; lat. 24° 11′ N., lon. 71° 23′ E. In 1820, the Nadola Chohan Rajpoots occupied that portion of the Theraudri next the Runn, from Sooreegaum to the towns of Jampi and Dookra, on the Loony river, which is the Ban of Arrowsmith's map. Their chief was Zalim Singh Chohan, the rana of Wow, whose kindred or brotherhood were numerous, and petty chiefs of fortified villages mostly depopulated. At the above date the revenues of this extensive tract were only estimated at 24,250 rupees per annum, of which the rana received little more than half; but immediately on its being taken under British protection seventeen towns were immediately repeopled. In 1820, owing to the incessant ravages it had sustained, the houses in Wow were reduced from 5,000 in 1809, to 500, and its military force from 600 horse and 5,000 foot to 32 horse and 2,042 foot. All the neighbouring towns were in a condition equally deplorable.—(*Miles, &c.*)

WOWAMIA.—A small fishing town in the Gujerat peninsula, about six miles distant from where the fortress of Mallia stood; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 70° 40′ E. This place stands on the

margin of the Runn, and there is a ferry established for the transport of passengers to the Cutch shore.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

WAISSA.—A town in the province of Mooltan, principality of Sinde, situated on the west bank of the Indus, seventeen miles N.N.E. from Tatta; lat. 24° 55′ N., lon. 68° 25′ E.

WUCKUTGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Budnawur, from which town it is distant about seven miles south; lat. 22° 57′ N., lon. 75° 12′ E.

WUDWAN.—A considerable town and fort in the province of Gujerat, tributary to the Guicowar; lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 71° 47′ E. Ghee, hemp, and leather are brought to this place from Puttunwara in waggons, and carried hence to Bhownuggur, on the gulf of Cambay, from whence they are exported by sea.—(*Macmurdo, Walker, &c.*)

WULLUBGHUR.—A hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor, thirty-seven miles S. by W. from Merritch; lat. 16° 20′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E. This place was long held under the Peshwa by Purseram Bhow, and when he was defeated and slain, was seized by the Colapoor Raja, in whose possession it remained until 1804, when, by the interposition of the British government, it was restored to the Peshwa, and was transferred by him to one of his feudatories.—(*MSS., &c.*)

WURDA RIVER (*varada, granting prayers*).—A river of the province of Gundwana, which rises in the pergunnah of Mooltye, and flowing south joins the Wyne Gunga, at Seony, below Chanda. To the south of Hinghunghaut this river is about the size of the Kankaun, opposite to Nagpoor. It has many fine pools in the hottest weather, but is generally fordable at all seasons, excepting the very height of the rains. The streams and rivulets that have their source in the hilly tract west of Nagpoor, all flow north or south of the Wurda, which is navigable during the rains as high as Rattegong, above which point, except while the high floods prevail, the navigation is not practicable owing to a fall in the river at Natchengong. The Wunna river, which passes the large trading town of Hinghunghaut and falls into the Wurda, is navigable for boats some distance above the latter place in the height of the rains.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

WURREE.—A village in the province of Ajmeer, pergunnah of Chittoor, which in 1820 belonged to the rana of Odeypoor, and contained about 100 houses.

WYCODOO.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, situated in lat. 8° 43′ N., lon. 77° 42′ E.

WYNAAD (*Bynadu*).—A small subdivision of the modern province of Malabar, situated above the Western Ghauts, between the eleventh and twelfth degrees of north latitude, and comprehending an area of about 1,250 square miles. Bynadu, or Wynaad, signifies the open country, but does not seem applicable to this locality, as, although situated on the tops of the mountains, it is in many places overrun with jungle and of difficult access. This territory is also named Nellcala and Wynatil, and produces the best cardamoms in India. Carula Verma, the present raja, (1800,) is sprung from a younger branch of the family and retains considerable power within his own limits. The village of Pananburt Cotta, or Wynaad, is situated in lat. 11°47′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E.; forty miles E. from Tellichery. In 1800 the number of male slaves in this division, above the age of fifteen, amounted to 2,266, and the females to 2,264. The number of males below that age was 1,010, and of females 1,050. The total number of free inhabitants at that date amounted to 8,070 persons.

WYNE GUNGA DISTRICT (*Vana Ganga*).—A district in the province of Gundwana, belonging to the Nagpoor Raja, named from the Wyne

Gunga River, by which it is intersected.

The area of this district cannot yet be correctly given, it never having been surveyed; a large portion particularly, near the hills, is occupied by zemindars. In the government part the low country to the east of the river is throughout cultivated, with the exception of what is intentionally kept in pasturage. In some tracts to the west there are extensive plains still waste, owing to the extortions practised towards the conclusion of Ragojee's reign. This district is divided into thirteen pergunnahs.

It would appear from ancient records, traces of towns, forts, villages and tanks, discovered in the jungles, that this country was once much more populous than at present. At what period and from what cause it fell into the impoverished condition in which it was found by the Maharattas cannot now be ascertained; but the fact of its being then partitioned among a number of savage Gond zemindars, hostile to each other, and rebellious towards their superiors of Mundela, Deoghur and Chanda, may partly account for its then state of desolation. Under the Bhoonsla domination, however, it greatly improved and its population increased, the turbulent Gond zemindars being expelled from the plains, to make room for more industrious subjects and a more pacific administration. The collections under the British system in 1818-19, amounted to 7,10,435 rupees; in 1824, to 7,56,333 rupees; the number of inhabited villages to 2,111; and the total population to 690,770 persons.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

Wyne Gunga River (*VanaGanga, the arrowGanges*).—A river of Gundwana, and one of the largest in the Nagpoor dominions. It rises in the district of Seonee Chuparah, where its source is 1,850 feet above the level of the sea, and passing through the town of Chuparah, emerges from the hills at Tamboodu, about twenty miles north from Rampyle. Flowing thence with a southerly course by Bundara, Ambora and Pawnee, and through the district of Chanda, it enters the Godavery at Kalishwar, near Chinoor. In many parts of its course the channel of this river is above half a mile wide, but when it is confined by the hills it does not exceed 400 or 500 yards. It is fordable in most places during the dry season, and it does not receive any stream of magnitude from the eastern hills, but several from the western, more especially from the Mahadeo hills. The Kanhaun, which flows in the rear of the British cantonments at Kampti, is there about 500 yards wide, and it subsequently joins the Wyne Gunga two miles north of Ambora.

This river serves for the purpose of transporting timber, brought to it in considerable quantities through the channels of its principal tributaries from the hills, as well as rice and other raw articles of produce.—The Kanhaun, Pech and Colar are used for the same purpose, and by means of them and the Wyne Gunga the city and cantonments of Nagpoor are supplied with most of the timber required for building. The latter river in the lower parts of its course is said to be navigable during the rains for boats of 600 maunds burthen.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

Wyraghur.—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-four miles N.E. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 20° 19′ N., lon. 80° 56′ E. The diamond mines here were formerly noted for their value, but they have long ceased to yield adequate returns. The diamonds were found in a yellowish earth, which forms small hills in the vicinity of Wyraghur. The spots may still be distinguished where these gems were dug up.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

X.

Xulla Isles.—Four islands in the Eastern seas, situated to the south-

east of the Molucca passage. The one named Xulla Bessey is the most considerable, being eleven leagues in length, in good cultivation and well-inhabited. The Dutch fort or factory is near a village, adjacent to the south-east point, where ships may procure refreshments. In A.D. 1350, according to the annals of Ternate, the people of that island conquered the Xulla Isles, and in modern times they are said to be occasionally invaded by the Papuas, although the distance is almost 300 miles.—(*Bougainville, Thorn, &c.*)

Y.

YANDABOO.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, forty-five miles W.S.W. from the city of Ava. On the arrival of Sir Archibald Campbell's army at this place the treaty of peace was at last ratified by the Burmese monarch, on the twenty-sixth of February 1826, the first instalment (twenty-five lacks of rupees) paid down, and the prisoners liberated, which being accomplished, the British army immediately retrograded towards Rangoon. The total number of the British army at Yandaboo did not quite reach 4,500 men; and there was only one native regiment posted at Menday, to protect the rear, and keep open the communication with the sea.—(*Trant, &c.*)

YAYNANGHEOUM.—A town in the Burmese dominions, situated on the left bank of the Irawady: lat. 20° 28′ N., lon. 94° 35′ E. Five miles east of this place are the celebrated petroleum wells, which supply the whole Burmese empire, and many parts of Ultra-Gangetic India, with this useful production.

The town is chiefly inhabited by pot-makers, who carry on an extensive manufacture of earthenware. There are here a great many oil-pits or wells, from thirty-seven to fifty-three fathoms deep, scattered over an area of sixteen square miles, and are said to yield about 150 gallons daily. The oil is drawn up with an iron pot fastened to a rope, passed over a wooden axis, revolving on a bar supported by two upright posts. When the pot is filled, two men take the rope and run down a declivity; the pot is afterwards emptied into a cistern, and the water drawn off by a hole at the bottom. When a well is exhausted, they restore the spring by cutting deeper into the rock, which is extremely hard. The Birman government farms out the ground that contains the oil, and it becomes subject to adventurers, who dig the wells at their own hazard. The commodity is sold very cheap on the spot, the principal expense being the charges of transportation, and the cost of the earthen pots to hold it. In 1827 the surrounding country was found barren, uninteresting, and almost destitute of vegetation; and not only fossil wood was found, but also fossil shells and bones. The latter consisted of those of the rhinoceros, elephant, alligator, tortoise, &c., and were brought away in large quantities by the British embassy to be sent to Europe.—(*Symes, Crawfurd, Trant, &c.*)

YE.—This province, or rather district, is of small extent, and usually included in that of Tavoy. It is bounded on the north by the Kyaup Kyajee river; on the south it is separated from Tavoy by the Heuza; on the east it is bounded by the Siamese mountains; and on the west by the sea.

The face of the country presents a dense jungle, broken at wide intervals by rivers and rice plains, the last of small extent. Its agriculture and productions entirely resemble those of Tavoy. The Ye river was explored to about thirty miles above the town, but no teak was discovered. In 1825 it contained very few inhabitants, as besides Burmese cruelty it had been infested by Siamese marauding parties, to procure slaves. The district, in consequence, when acquired by the British, was almost in

a state of nature, and yielded no revenue.

YE.—The town of Ye, as may be inferred from the above description of the province, is a very insignificant place, and in 1825 did not contain more than 150 houses; yet it is the only aggregation of dwellings in the province deserving the name of a town. The stockade of Ye stands on a hill about 100 feet above the river, which washes its southern base; but was captured without resistance in 1824, and then left to shift for itself, exposed to the ravages of Siamese marauders, our nominal allies. Timber is abundant, and the inhabitants were formerly reckoned good carpenters, but they have nearly all disappeared.—(*Low, Fullerton, &c.*)

YEFLAUDOOR.—A large village in the Mysore province, situated on the bank of a fine stream, thirty-eight miles S.E. from the city of Mysore. This place is surrounded by plantations of betel-leaf, and contains two Hindoo temples, of considerable size and antiquity, much decorated with sculpture.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

YELLACUMBUM.—A neat, well-built village in the Mysore province, about eleven miles N. by E. from Bangalore, with which it communicates by an excellent road.

YELLANEER PASS.—A pass among the Western Ghauts, which leads down from Mercara, the capital of the Coorg country, to Mangalore on the sea-coast. It commences about nine miles north-westerly from Mercara, and is a steep descent, with little variation, to the bottom, a distance of about three miles. It is in general good, and scarcely at all affected by the rains. The substance of the mountain being a mixture of clay and loam, hardens when exposed to the air. A very little repairing would render the ghaut practicable for any thing but guns and carriages.—(*Col. Lambton, &c.*)

YELLAPARA.—A small town above the Western Ghaut mountains, belonging to the modern province of Canara, division of Soonda, sixty miles S.E. from the city of Goa; lat. 15° 2′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

YENNA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Jowra, which in 1820 belonged to Ghuffoor Khan, and contained about 200 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

YERTNAGOODUM.—A town in the Northern Circars, fifteen miles west from Rajamundry; lat. 16° 58′ N., lon. 81° 39′ E. The forests on the banks of the Godavery abound with timber fit for the purposes of ship-building, being of a superior size and quality. In 1814 the firm of Wm Palmer and Co., from their own observation and from facts detailed by the inhabitants of the Ramghur and Paloonshah pergunnahs, were of opinion that a navigation of 400 miles in length might be opened, during four months of the year, on this river and the Wurda, which would greatly facilitate the commercial intercourse between the inland provinces of the Deccan and the bay of Bengal.—(*Rennell, J. Grant, Blunt, H. Russell, &c.*)

YETCOOLACH.—A small town in the Northern Circars, district of Vizagatam, forty-seven miles travelling distance from the town of Vizagapatam. This place stands in the gorge of a narrow opening in the mountains, where there is also a temple built on the apex of a low hill.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

YLIGAN.—A small Spanish redoubt and garrison, situated on a bay of the same name, on the north coast of Magindanao isle.

YOWL ISLES.—A cluster of very small islands in the Eastern seas, lying off the north coast of Wageeoo island, about the 131st degree of east longitude, and surrounded by coral reefs.

YUGYACARTA (*in Java*).—See JOCOCARTA.

YUNNAN.—A province of China, situated at the S.W. corner, and intersected by the twenty-fifth degree of N. latitude. Very little is known re-

specting the interior of this province, and that through the medium mostly of the Jesuits and Roman Catholic missionaries; but at present it deserves notice, as being within 200 miles of the eastern extremity of Assam, now virtually subject to the British government.

The country which forms the western portion of Yunnan is described by the Chinese as mountainous, wild, thinly-peopled, and very unhealthy. According to Col. Symes it is named Mancheegee by the Burmese; and Mangi is the name given by Marco Polo to the southern part of China; the northern he calls Cathay. It contains the sources of many rivers. The great river Lookeang forms the boundary of the Chinese empire in this quarter, from lat. 27° to 26° N., where it enters the Yunnan province, and issuing from it again about lat 24° N., proceeds nearly due south, serving, during a considerable part of its course, as the boundary line of Ava and Siam; subsequently it discharges its waters into the sea below Martaban, after performing a course of more than 660 miles.

There is a place named Tsau-ta by Du Halde (lat. 25° N., lon. 98° 10' E.) with the title of foo or city of the first order, but in a modern Chinese map it is mentioned merely as a frontier town or foo-sze, and there is no chief city to the westward of Yung Chang Foo (lat. 25° N., lon. 99° 40' E.) on the outskirts of the Chinese empire. Shunning is in lat. 24° 40' N., lon. 100° 20' E. The modern Chinese map mentions Tsau-ta or Sauta as one of these military stations and not as a chief town, and Du Halde says "that last town which confines on the kingdom of Ava is properly a fortified city to defend that part of the frontier."

The Pinlang Keang river of the Chinese, flowing into the Burmese territory, immediately below Tsau-ta, is called in our maps Pan-mo-keang, and represented as uniting with the Irawady at Bhanmo or Panmo, while the Lung Chuen Keang (lat. 24° 15' N., lon. 98° 52' E.) a little below to the southward, is named the Shueli Myeet, and also flows into the Irawady. Were this point established, then the Lung Chuen Keang would also be the real Bhanmo, or Pan-mo Keang. Below the Lung Chuen towards Ava, we find immediately on the border Meng-maou (lat. 23° 50' N., lon. 97° 55' E.), or as it is pronounced Mengmo, which is very likely intended for Bhanmo or Panmo, called Bamoo by Col. Symes.

A stream named in a manuscript Chinese map the Man-loo-ho, whose source is about lat. 22° 40' N., lon. 99° 40' E. seems to be the commencement of the great river of Siam (the Menam) which reaches the sea at Bankok. The Kew-Lung Keang, or river of the nine dragons, after collecting a number of tributary streams in the Yunnan province, traverses an immense expanse, and finally empties itself into the sea at the southern extremity of Cambodia, is not excelled by the Yang-tsze itself in length of course, and may be classed among the principal rivers of our globe.

The original natives of Yunnan are more or less independent, and where there is a divided authority, each tribe is ruled by its own chief, which is more particularly the case with the Meau-tsze or Lolos. According to a Roman Catholic priest, Yunnan is at present ruled by a Chinese viceroy, but has not been very long conquered, especially the remote parts, by that nation, and after an obstinate resistance. Disturbances have arisen during the reigning dynasty, but have been forcibly subdued. The city of Poo-eul, the the Poo-urh-foo of the maps (lat. 23° 10' N., lon. 101° 20' E.) is four lis in circumference. Its population is not known, being partly composed of natives. The mountain named Pou-eul is famed for a species of tea, which is carried to Pekin, and presented to the emperor in balls or in cakes, which are composed of the extract. The district of Yung Chang Foo c . .-

tains a city of the second order, one of the third, and some small districts which are inhabited by subdued natives, but many still remain independent. The province is known to be rich in metals, from which the government draws much profit.—(*J. F. Davis, &c.*)

YUNSHAN.—An extensive inland region of India beyond the Ganges, situated about the twentieth degree of north latitude, but respecting the interior of which scarcely anything is known. By the Burmese it is comprehended in the list of their provinces, and its inhabitants are probably a branch of the great Shan nation. The country appears to be well watered, and is probably fertile, being intersected by several rivers flowing from the province of Yunnan in China.—See SHAN COUNTRY.

YUTHIA (*or Siam*).—A town in the kingdom of Siam, of which it was the former capital; lat. 14° 5′ N., lon. 100° 25′ E. This place stands on an island formed by the Menam or Siam river, intersected by several canals, and has several other islands adjacent. Although of great extent, the population has been very scanty ever since the seat of government was removed to Bankok. The palace of the king covers a great space of ground, and is surrounded by high walls, including several temples, but the whole now in ruins. There are still here many casts of statues and cannon, the latter of a prodigious calibre, which indicate a greater perfection in the arts than now exists. In 1767 this place was captured after a long blockade by the Burmese, who pillaged the city, destroyed the temples, tortured and massacred the priests, although professing the same religion, and extirpated the royal family. By the Burmese this town is frequently named Dwarawuddy, but by the natives it is named Seey-thaa; but most of the Siamese towns are distinguished by two appellations, one in the vulgar tongue and the other in the Pali.—(*Elmore, Turpin, Symes, &c.*)

Z.

ZABETA KHAN'S CANAL (*or the Doab Canal*).—A canal in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, known by the above name, and from an attempt made by Zabeta Khan to restore it, but which failed from the interruption given to the work by the Seiks. The original excavator is not known, nor even the exact date, but it is supposed to have been commenced during the reign of Mahomed Shah, a short time previous to Nadir Shah's invasion, but owing to the troubles that ensued was neglected. Regarding its subsequent repairs there are various traditions among the natives, but it appears its restoration was attempted by Nijib ud Dowlah, the nabob of Saharunpoor, or his son Zabeta Khan, probably the last, who during the first year of his reign brought the water to Ghousghur, then his capital.

This canal appears at one time, and under different names, to have run through the whole western half of the upper doab of the Ganges and Jumna, from the base of the hills to the city of Delhi; and before it fell into decay must have fertilized in its windings an extent of country not much short of 200 miles. Proofs of the former fertility of this tract may still be traced amidst its present state of impoverishment. Extensive groves of mango trees are evidences that population once existed there, and even where no vestiges of human industry now remain, the names of villages are recorded in the public accounts as having once stood on it. It commenced at Fyzabad, a small village near the banks of the Jumna, where the water was thrown into the canal by a dam, and must have been a source of great revenue, as the zemindars in its neighbourhood were taxed according to the quantity of water they required. Where irrigation was called for, a bund or embankment was thrown across it, and in a few hours the fields were inundated. According to tradition, four annas per bega, modified by peculiar

circumstances, were paid to government for a supply of water, and in particular spots the payment was received in kind. But besides this regular and rational tax, there were an endless variety of taxes exacted from cattle for permission to drink, washermen for permission to wash, flax-dressers for permission to steep their hemp and flax, &c. &c. which the British on its restoration intend wholly to abolish. In 1823, the total expence likely to be incurred by its restoration was estimated at 2,03,633 rupees.

In the upper part of its course the banks where this canal formerly run, are covered with sissoo trees, which in some places form forests of great extent, and in others are scattered over the country in great abundance. At present they are seldom allowed to attain their full size, but with proper looking after might become valuable timber.—(*Capt. Tod, Sir E. Colebrooke, Capt. Tickell, &c.*)

ZAFFERABAD.—A populous town in the province of Allahabad, four miles north from Juanpoor; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 83° 38′ E.

ZEBU ISLE.—One of the Philippines, situated about the 123d and 124th degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at 108 miles, by twenty-four the average breadth.

Magellan arrived at this island in A.D. 1521, and was received by the inhabitants with such kindness, that their king, Hamabar, his whole family, with the chief of Dimasara (another island), and many of his subjects, were baptized. The chief of Mactan, a small island lying off the town of Zebu, alone resisted the Spaniards, and defied Magellan, who unfortunately accepted the challenge. He selected for the enterprize fifty Spaniards, who attacked the Indians in morasses, the water up to their breasts, and approached so near, that Magellan was wounded by an arrow, and died in the field of battle with six others, the rest saving themselves by flight. On his death the survivors chose for their commander Juan Serrano, but he was soon after decoyed into a snare by the natives of Zebu, and, with twenty-four other Spaniards, massacred. His successor, Juan Carvallo, burned one of the vessels, and sailed from Zebu, with the Trinidad and Victoria, in search of the Moluccas.—(*Zuniga, &c.*)

ZEDAYO.—A town on the north coast of the island of Java, 509 miles east from Batavia; lat. 6° 58′ N., lon. 112° 35′ E. This place is situated at the entrance of the harbour of Gressic, and is a port of considerable importance. In 1814, the depati, or native under the British government, was a man of very superior talents and intelligence to the generality of his countrymen. In the eastern quarter of Java these petty chiefs live with some splendour, and are remarkably hospitable to strangers.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

ZINCHIN.—A Tartar station in Tibet, 16,136 feet above the level of the sea. At this enormous elevation, in 1821, horses were seen feeding and galloping about; large flocks of small birds, kites and eagles soaring in the air, and locusts jumping among the bushes. The sky was remarkably black, and the heavenly bodies shone brilliantly. With a transit instrument of thirty inches, and a power of thirty, stars of the fifth magnitude could be distinctly seen in broad day. On the 26th July, the thermometer attained 60° Fahrenheit in the shade; before sunrise it was 30° Fahrenheit. Plenty of fuel, (metoh, bearing a beautiful yellow flower, and without prickles,) good water, and a serene sky were found.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

ZONCHENG.—A station in Tibet, 14,700 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 30′ N. According to theory, this spot should be buried in everlasting snow; but, when visited by Messrs. Gerards, in July 1821, the reality was very different. The glen was covered by Tartaric furze, and the banks of the river with prickly bushes. The surrounding land was covered with verdure, flocks of sheep

were browzing, deer leaping, while the thermometer reached 68°.—(*Gerards, &c.*)

Zyghur (*or Jaighur*).—A seaport town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Concan, 123 miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17° 14′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E. The two points that form the entrance to the bay of Zyghur are about five miles distant, and it is about two miles and a half deep. The entrance of the river is about three quarters of a mile broad, with about three fathoms and a half water. The channel is navigable for a considerable distance inland, and has a large town on the south side, about thirteen miles above the fort. There is not any town at the mouth of the river, but there are straggling villages on both sides. There is plenty of good water in the upper fort, and at some of the adjacent villages, but in the lower fort, and near the usual landing place, it is brackish. The water is commonly quite smooth at the entrance during the south-west monsoon, and inside vessels of a large draught of water may lie completely sheltered at all seasons of the year.—(*Dominicite, &c.*)

GLOSSARY.

N. B. To save the trouble of reference, and to prevent the Glossary fron swelling to too great a size, many words are explained in the body o the work (within a parenthesis), as they occur.

AAL *(a plant)*—The *morinda citrifolia*, the roots of which yield a red dye.

Abad—Abode, residence.

Abkarry—Taxes or duties on the manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors and intoxicating drugs.

Adawlet—Justice, equity, a court of justice civil or criminal.

Agar Agar—Malay words denoting a species of *fucus saccharinus*.

Agila *(or eagle-wood)*—A sweet-smelling wood, named also wood of aloes, much used in China.

Agom *(Sanscrit)*—Magic; the doctrine of the Tantras.

Aheer—A cow, sheep, or goat-herd.

Al—An Arabic particle prefixed to words, equivalent to the English particle *the*; *al koran*, the book or bible of the Mahomedans.

Allah Taala *(Arabic)*—The most high God.

Altumgha *(properly eltugma)*—Lands granted in perpetuity for service or free, as expressed in the deed.

Ambaree *(a plant)*—The *hibiscus canabinus*.

Ameer *(amir or emir)*—An Arabic word, equivalent to that of nobleman.

Amuk—A Malay word signifying to run-a-muck, or murder indiscriminately.

Anak *(Malay)*—A confluence of several streams.

Anna—The sixteenth part of a rupee.

Antyaj *(Sanscrit)*—In religion and practice means abominable.

Ar or Aur—In the Carnatic a river, as Vanee-aur, the river Vanee.

Arhat—A Jain appellation, applied to the divine essence. It means venerable. The Jains are sometimes termed Arhatas.

Asuras—In Hindoo astronomy, inhabitants of the south pole, as opposed to the Suras, those of the north pole; also evil demons, infidels, &c.

Asura Druva—The south pole.

Astic *(Sanscrit)*—Orthodox.

Asram *(Sanscrit)*—A state in which a person is supposed to become a portion of the divinity.

Areca—The betel-nut tree, a species of palm. The betel-leaf is betel-piper, which is the same genus as the *piper nigrum* of Linnæus.

Areca Catechu—The common betel-nut, the *penang* of the Malays.

Aswamedha — The sacrifice of a horse; a most royal and expensive ceremony, performed by ancient Hindoo rajas, and of such efficacy that it even expiated the crime of slaying a Brahmin.

Aumaunee—A technical term which means that the dues of government are to be received in kind from each field reaped, and to be stocked, watched, and sold by the government servants.

Aumildar—The holder of an office, an agent or functionary.

Aurung—The place where goods are manufactured.

Avatara—Descents of the deity in various shapes, incarnations;

those of Rama and Krishna are the most remarkable.

Awa—A grain of Tibet having the appearance of barley, but which Dr. Wallich considers a species of wheat.

Baboo—A Hindoo title of respect.

Babool Tree—The *mimosa* or *acacia Arabica.*

Bag—A Bengal bag of rice weighs 164 pounds.

Bairaggies—Hindoo devotees, votaries of Vishnu.

Bajury—A grain, the *holcus spicatus.*

Balaghaut—Above the ghauts, in contradistinction to *Payeenghaut,* below the ghauts. The terms refer to the high central table-land in the south of India, and the modern province of the Carnatic.

Bamboo—A Malay word denoting the *arundo bambos.*

Ban *(Siamese)*—A village, place, station.

Banana—The *musa paradisiaca* or plantain.

Bang—An intoxicating drug prepared in India from the flowers and juice of the hemp plant, to which opium is sometimes added.

Bangles—Coarse glass rings worn by females round the wrist.

Bankasaul—A Dutch word adopted by the natives of the Malabar coast, to signify a wharf.

Banyan—A Hindoo merchant or shopkeeper.

Banyan Tree *(named also the Bur tree)*—The *ficus Indica.*

Baota—An East-Indian millet, the *panicum frumentaceum.*

Batta—Deficiency, discount, allowance to troops in the field.

Batty—In Malabar means seed land or paddy-field.

Bazar—Daily markets. In Bengal it is not unusual to have them in a haut, where a number of petty venders, besides the established venders, assemble.

Bega—A land measure equal in Bengal to about a third part of an acre, but varying in different provinces. The common ryotty bega in Bengal contains about 1,600 square yards.

Begum—A (Mahomedan) lady, princess, woman of high rank.

Betel-nut Tree—The *areca catechu,* a species of palm.

Betel-leaf—The leaf of a species of pepper (the *piper betel*) which is masticated along with the areca or betel-nut and lime.

Bharat—War, as maha-bharat, the great war.

Bhasha—A dialect.

Bhela Tree—The tree which bears the marking-nut of India; the *semicarpus anacardium.*

Bhojputra—The birch tree.

Bhyaud—A brotherhood.

Bhai—A Hindoo lady of high rank.

Biche-de-Mar *(Insect of the sea; Portuguese)*—It is named also swallo, sea-slug, tripang, and sea-cucumber, and is a marine reptile, very much resembling the garden slug in appearance, but considerably larger. It is a great article of trade from the Eastern islands to China, where it is used to season their soups, being esteemed highly nutritious and invigorating.

Bismillah—A Mahomedan invocation, signifying "in the name of God."

Bindara *(Malay)*—A kind of prime minister and treasurer.

Blachang—A fetid mess composed of small fish, chiefly prawns or shrimps, pounded in a mortar, fermented, mixed with spices and then dried in the sun. It is the *gnapee* of the Burmese.

Bohea—From *Bue,* the name of a chain of hills in China, among the vallies of which the black tea is grown.

Boot—A small vetch, the *cicer arietinum.*

Bowlee—A small reservoir, well, or tank, with steps down to the water; those without steps are named koonh.

Brahmin—The first or sacerdotal caste of the Hindoos.

Brab—A species of palm tree producing the tari or toddy. The *borassus flabelliformis.*

BRAHMINY-GOOSE—The *anas casarca.*
BRAHMOTTAR — Lands granted to Brahmins for their support.
BRINJALS—The *solanum longum.*
BRINJARIES — Itinerant merchants, dealing principally in rice.
BROMELIA ANANAS—The common pine-apple of the East and West Indies.
BUDDICK—The term Buddick is used in conjunction with Dacoit, Cozauk, and Thug, as descriptive of different classes of public robbers.
BUCKSHEE—Paymaster, commander.
BUND—An embankment.
BUNDER—A port or harbour.
BUNGALOW—A commodius dwelling thus named, erected by Europeans in Bengal, and extremely well suited to the climate. It entirely consists of wood, bamboos, mats, and thatch, and may be completed in a short space of time, and at a moderate expense.
BURR TREE—The *ficus indica* or banyan tree.
BURKINDAUZES — Darters of lightning; matchlock-men.

CAFFRE—An unbeliever, Abyssinian, or negro.
CAILAS—In Hindoo mythology, the heaven of Siva.
CALI or CALCI—The tenth incarnation of Vishnu, in the shape of a horse with a human head; still expected.
CALI YUG—A period of 432,000 years, of which 3,101 had expired on the 14th of March A.D. 1 current. The 4925th year of the Cali Yug ended, and the 4926th year began on the 11th April 1824, civil account.
CALPA—The grand period of a general conjunction.
CAMPONG (*Malay*) — An enclosed village, quarters in a bazar.
CANDY—The Bombay candy weighs 560 pounds.
CANNAUT (*Persian*)—A sort of subterranean canal.
CANONGOE (*canun, rule, goe, speak; Persian*)—An officer of government (or register) whose duty it is to keep a register of all circumstances relating to the land revenue, and when called upon, to declare the customs of each district, the nature of the tenures, the quantity of land in cultivation, the nature of the produce, and the amount of rent paid, &c.
CARCOON—A man of business, writer, vakeel, or other agent, or dependent on the government, or on a great chief.
CASH (*Chinese*)—Thin pieces of copper perforated and strung on a cord.
CASTE (*in Sanscrit Kayast'ha*)—A word employed by Europeans to express the subdivisions of the different Hindoo tribes, although properly it has only reference to one, the Kayast'ha or writer division.
CATTY—A Chinese weight of about 1⅓ pounds English.
CAUZI—A Mahomedan judge or justice who occasionally officiates as a public notary.
CAWNY—A Madras land measure.
CHACRA—A sort of small discus, or quoit; also a wheel or circle; a cycle of years, a weapon of a circular form placed in the hands of the gods. Rasi Chacra signifies the zodiac.
CHACRABURTY—This title was usually bestowed on the Hindoo emperors of India.
CHANDRA—The common name for the moon.
CHANK—The conch shell or *voluta gravis.*
CHARVACAS (*or Shraunks*)—A sect of Jains.
CHAKOOR (*or Chuckore*)—The perdix rufa or fire-eater, thus named from its pecking at sparks of fire.
CHICKON—Muslins ornamented with detached flowers or spots.
CHINI—A fine kind of raw sugar.
CHINNA (*the lathyrus aphaca*)—A plant of the pea or vetch kind.
CHITREES—Sculptured monuments erected in commemoration of distinguished deceased, consisting usually of a small but solid mausoleum.
CHOAR—A robber.
CHOKEYDAR—A watchman.

Choultry—*(Chauvadi)*—A place of accommodation for travellers; the Mahomedans call them Serai, and they are also named Dhurrumsallahs.

Chow *(Chinese)*—A town or city of the second class.

Chowk—The principal street or grand market-place of a town.

Chout—A fourth part of the clear revenue, a tribute formerly levied on certain states by the Maharattas, as the condition of their abstaining from plundering.

Chowry—A whisk to keep off flies. They are either made of the Tibet cows'-tail (the *bos grunniens*,) peacock's-feathers, or ivory-shavings, set in a handle two feet long.

Chuckrum—A sum of money equal to 2½ star pagodas.

Chulias—In the eastern ports, a name given to Malabar Mahomedans, or Moplays.

Chunam—Lime. The Madras chunam, made of calcined shells, is considered the best in India.

Chucklah—See Circar.

Chunna—The *cicer arientinum*, a species of grain.

Chur—A sand-bank.

Circar—In Hindostan, a certain number of villages form a pergunnah; a certain number of pergunnahs, comprehending a tract of ground equal to a moderate-sized English county, is denominated a chuckla; of these a certain number and extent form a circar, and a few circars form a grand division, province, or soubah. This word occasionally means the government, and is also much used by Europeans to designate a Hindoo writer or accountant, in which case it is usually written *Sircar*. See also Soubah.

Coillery *(properly kallen)*—Means a thief.

Coir—The fibres of the coco-nut husk.

Coolies—Labourers, porters, slaves.

Compound *(from campao, Portuguese)*—An enclosure round a house or bungalow.

Coond—A spring, well, or fountain.

Conker *(kankar)*—A calcareous concretion. A hard white calcareous soil.

Copra—The coco-nut kernel cut into slices and dried for exportation.

Corge—A score.

Coss *(karoh or krosa)*—A corrupt term used by Europeans to denote a road measure, generally estimated at forty-two to the degree, but differing in almost every province. It may be computed as never under a mile, or more than two miles.

Cowry—A small shell that passes for money throughout India. From 2,500 to 5,000, according to circumstances, are equivalent to a rupee or two shillings.

Cozauks—Properly robbers on horseback.

Crattan *(Malay)*—A citadel, fortress.

Crore—Ten millions.

Curnum—A village-accountant or register.

Cumeru—The southern hemisphere or pole. A fabulous region where Yama *(Pluto)* presides over the Asuras and Daityas.

Cusba—The head village of a talook or pergunnah.

Cut *(or kut)*—*Terra Japonica*. The inspissated juice of the mimosa chadira.

Cutcha—Unripe, incomplete, short measure. See Pucka.

Cutcherry—A court of justice; also the public office where the rents are paid, and other business respecting the revenue transacted.

Cuttrah—A citadel, fortified town.

Cutwal—The chief police officer in a large town.

Cusa-grass—A sacred grass used by the Brahmins in their religious ceremonies. It is a species of the *poa cynosuroides*.

Dacoits—Gang robbers.

Dal—A species of vetch; the *cytisus cajan*, or pigeon-pea tree, usually split.

Dam, or Daum—A copper coin, the twenty-fifth part of a pice, ac-

cording to some an ideal money, the fortieth part of a rupee.

Dammer—A species of resin.

Dalawai—In Mysore, a prime minister.

Dagop—A Buddhist temple, or sepulchral edifice in Ceylon.

Dawk—In Bengal means the post.

Deccan (*Dacshina*)—From a Sanscrit word signifying the south, but applied by the Mahomedan historians to the country between the Nerbudda and the Krishna rivers.

Dersana (*Sanscrit*)—A school of philosophy.

Desa—A country, or division.

Desam—In Malabar, a village.

Deshmook—A zemindar, or chief of a division.

Deshpandee—A keeper of accounts in a small district.

Devas—Demigods, good spirits governed by Indra. The inhabitants of the north-pole, as contradistinguished from the Asuras.

Desantara—The distance of any two meridians on the surface of the earth, or what Europeans call longitude.

Dewan—The head officer of finance and revenue, almost always a Hindoo.

Dewanny—By this title the East-India Company are receivers-general in perpetuity of the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, under a grant obtained by Lord Clive, from the Emperor Shah Allum, in A.D. 1765; the Bengal year 1171.

Dewanny Adawlut—A court for trying revenue and other civil causes.

Dessaye—In the southern Maharatta countries is a rank equivalent to that of an independent poligar in the Carnatic.

Dhak—A bush with a large broad leaf like a peepul, and a beautiful pink flower.

Dharmashastra (*Sanscrit*)—Writings on religion and justice.

Dhanesa—The Indian buceros or horn-bill, which delights to feed on the fruit of the nux vomica.

Dherna—Restraint to compel payment of arrears or to gain any object. It precludes locomotion and eating on both sides, until the affair in dispute is adjusted.

Dhurrumsala—A place for the accommodation of travellers, similar to a choultry or serai.

Digamber—A naked Jain image; Swetamber, a clothed one.

Dobash—One who speaks two languages.

Doab—Any tract of country included between two rivers.

Doon—A valley.

Doongur—The shepherd tribe.

Dragoman—An interpreter, from Turjuma, a Persian word signifying translation.

Droog (*durga*)—A fortified hill or rock. A hill fortress.

Druva—The pole of a great circle, more especially of the earth.

Durga—The wife of Siva the destroyer. In astronomy a personification of the solar year.

Durbar—A court or place in which a sovereign or viceroy gives audience.

Dwipa—An extensive region, continent, or island.

Enaum—Land abstracted from government, and exempted from assessment, as being devoted to charitable or religious purposes. A gift of land, &c. from a superior to an inferior.

Eedgah—An open Mahomedan chapel, where the sacrifice of Isaac and other public festivals of that religion are annually exhibited.

Eras—The era of Salivahanam began in .... A.D. 78
Of Vicramaditya, ante-Christum 57
Of Porasurama ..... do. 1173
Of the Cali Yug, ... 3101 years
had expired in the year
of our Lord 1.
Add 1828

Expired of the Cali Yug, 4929 years

Let the proposed years be expressed according to the eras of the Cali Yug, Vicramaditya, and Salivahanam; the same may be reduced to Christian account by adding 3101 to the first, 57 to the second, and by subtracting 78 from the third.—

Epoch of the creation before the birth of Christ 4004 years.
(*Kala Sankalita.*)

FAKEER.—A Mahomedan religious mendicant or devotee.

FIRMAUN.—A royal order or mandate.

FOO *(Chinese)*.—A city of the first rank.

FOUJDAR.—A military superintendent or commander.

FUSLY *(or Fuslee)*.—What relates to the harvest or seasons of the year. In Bengal an era, in which the fusly year 1230 corresponds with A.D. 1823.

FUTWEH *(Arabic)*.—A judicial decree, sentence, or judgment, more especially when delivered by a mufti or doctor of the Mahomedan law.

FUSLY KHEREEF. — The autumnal season, or harvest for rice, millet, &c.

FUSLY RUBBEE.—The spring season, or harvest for pease, wheat, &c.

GALLIVATS.—Large boats of about seventy tons, rowing forty or more oars.

GAMBIR.—A strong astringent substance extracted from the leaves of the *nauclea gambir*, and used in China for tanning.

GANJA.—An intoxicating drug procured from the hempseed and flower.

GEETA.—A song or poem.

GENTOO.—A name derived from the Portuguese word Gentio, which signifies gentile in the scriptural sense.

GHAUT.—A pass through a mountain, but generally applied to an extensive chain of hills.

GHEE.—Butter clarified by boiling.

GNAPEE.—See BALACHANG.

GOBERDHANA.—The place of cow-killing.

GODOWN.—A factory or warehouse, from the Malay word gadong.

GOLAH.—A warehouse.

GOMASTA.—Native assistant, agent.

GOOMTY.—Winding; the name of many rivers in Hindostan.

GOOROO.—Among the Hindoos a spiritual guide.

GOSAINS.—Hindoo devotees; they are also named Sanyassies.

GRAM.—In botany, a species of vetch, of which there are many varieties, such as the cow, horse, red, black, and green gram.

GRAM *(or gong)*.—A village or township; the termination of many names.

GRAM KHURCH.—Village expenses.

GRASSIA *(from gras)*.—A Sanscrit word signifying a mouthful, metaphorically applied to designate the small share of the produce which the Grassia plunderers claim.

GRABS.—Square-rigged vessels with long prows.

GRAHA.—In Hindoo astronomy, the planets.

GUICOWAR.—A cow-keeper or herd; the designation of a Maharatta chieftain.

GUDDEE *(properly gadi)*.—A throne.

GUNGE.—A granary or depôt. In gunges the chief commodities sold are grain and the necessaries of life, and generally by wholesale; they often include bazars and hauts, where these articles are sold by retail, and in great variety. It is a very common termination of names in Bengal, and some of the adjacent provinces, and generally applied to a place where there is water-carriage.

GUAVA.—In botany, the *psidium pomiferum*.

GUNNIES.—Bags made of a coarse cotton fabric; a species of sackcloth.

GOONONG *(Malay)*.—A mountain.

GOONONG API *(Malay)*. —A volcano.

GUZ.—In botany, the Indian tamarisk.

GURRY.—A native fortification, consisting of a wall of mud or masonry flanked with towers; a village citadel.

GYLUMS.—Monks in Tibet and Bootan; pronounced also gelums and gylongs.

HAKIM.—A commander, governor'

ruler, master, the governing authority in a province.

Haram.—A separate apartment for females.

Haut.—A market which in Bengal is held on certain days only, and resorted to by petty venders and traders. They are established in open plains, where a flag is erected on the day and at the place of purchase and sale.

Heen (*Chinese*).—A city of the third rank.

Hooly (*Huli*).—The Hindoo festival of spring.

Hooly-powder.—A fine starch prepared from the root of the zedoary.

Hom.—The worship of fire; a burnt-offering.

Howdah.—A seat fixed on an elephant.

Hust-o-bood (*is and was*). — The neat rent.

Hijera (*Arabic*).—A term used in chronology, signifying the *epocha*, or account of time used by the Arabians, who begin from the day Mahomed was forced to escape from Mecca to Medina, *viz.* the 16th July A.D. 622. The years of the Hijera are lunar ones of 354 days; and therefore to reduce them to our calendar, we must multiply the year of the Hejira by 354, and divide the product by 365¼, adding 622, the result will be the Julian year.

Indra.—In Hindoo mythology the god of thunder; a personification of the sky; the chief of the Devatas and Suras.

Isha Devata.—The family or favourite god.

Istimrar.—Rents paid in perpetuity.

Izaradars.—In land revenue, middlemen.

Jack-fruit Tree.—In botany, the *autocarpus integrifolia.*

Jaggery.—Sugar in its coarse state; imperfectly granulated sugar; also the inspissated juice of the palmyra-tree.

Jaghire.—An assignment of the government share of the produce of a portion of land to an individual, either personal or for the support of a public establishment, particularly of a military nature.

Jambhu Dwipa.—One of the seven grand divisions of the earth.

Jamdani.—A species of muslin flowered in the loom.

Jatamansi.—The spikenard of the ancients.

Jattra.—A kind of religious festival and fair.

Jelmkar.—In Malabar this term signifies a proprietor.

Jeel.—A shallow lake or morass.

Jin.—A demon.

Jogies.—Hindoo devotees.

Jooms.—Mugh villages or hamlets.

Joss Sticks.—In China, small reeds, covered with the dust of odoriferous woods, and burned before idols.

Jowary. — The *holcus sorghum*, a species of Indian millet.

Jowassa.—Camel's thorn, a prickly bush on which camels browse.

Judishter (*Yudhisthir*). — One chronology places this sovereign 3,200 years before the birth of Christ. Dr. Francis Buchanan thinks he lived about the time of Alexander. In every part of Hindostan there remain traces of his family, or of the princes who were his contemporaries, and founders of many dynasties that have governed since his time. This prince, although usually called the son of Pandoo, is allowed to have been in fact the son of Dharma, the god of justice, by the wife of Pandoo, who seems to have been indebted to the assistance of the gods for all his five sons.

Jumma. — The whole, total, &c. Land revenue generally, but frequently applied to the aggregate of all revenues.

Jumma Musjeed.—The chief mosque of a city; the Mahomedan cathedral.

Jungle.—Land covered with forest-trees, thick impenetrable brushwood, creeping plants, and coarse, rank, reedy vegetation; wastes, forests, thickets.

Junnum Putter.—In astrology, the

aspect of the planets in the heavens at the moment of birth.

JUBBEE PUTKA.—The golden pennon or standard of the Maharattas.

JYOTISH.—Astronomy.

KALA, or CALA.—Time in its natural acceptation.

KALARIES.—Mounds of salt earth collected at salt-making places.

KAPAS.—Cotton; the *gossipium herbaceum.*

KATKAEE.—Indiscriminate pillage.

KIANG (*Chinese*).—A large river.

KIMARI.—A species of vetch or pea; the *lathyrus sativus.*

KETU.—The moon's descending node.

KHAILS.—Societies, clans in Afghanistan.

KHALSA.—Crown villages, government lands.

KHANA SUMARI.—An annual enumeration of the houses, with a specification of the caste and profession of each householder, for the purpose of adjusting the dues of government.

KHAO (*Siamese*).—A mountain.

KHARI NIMOK.—A species of impure glauber salts, or *sulphate of soda.*

KHAS.—Private, peculiar; revenue collected immediately by government without the agency of zemindars.

KHETRI (*Chatriya*).—The second or military caste of the Hindoos.

KHELAUT.—A robe of honour with which the Mahomedan princes confer honour.

KHONG (*Siamese*).—A river.

KHOOTBA.—That part of the Mahomedan church service in which the king of a country is prayed for. Inserting a prince's name in the Khootba, and stamping it on the current coin, in the East, are reckoned the most decided acknowledgments of sovereignty.

KHUS KHUS.—The name of a species of grass (the *andropogon muricatum*), which produces a sweet-smelling root.

KILLADAR.—Warder of a castle, commander of a fort.

KIST.—In finance, an instalment.

KOIT or KAIT (A provincial corruption of *kayast'ha*, hence *caste*).—A mixed tribe of Hindoos, whose profession is generally writing and accounts. Most of the Banyans and Sirkars of Calcutta are of this class.

KOMISDARS.—Managers or renters of provinces.

KOOAHS.—Wells without steps.

KOOL.—A tribe or caste.

KOOLKURNEE.—A village accountant, corresponding with the Tulatee of Gujerat.

KOONBIES.—Cultivators.

KOROK.—In Indian finance means a monopoly.

KUBBER PUNTS.—A particular sect of religious mendicants.

KULLALEE.—A species of kidney-bean, the *phaseolus max.*

KUR (*or cur*).—Signifies an inhabitant; as Nimbal kur, an inhabitant of Nimbal.

KORWA MUTTEE.—A *carbonate of soda.*

KWALLA, or QUALLA.—A Malay word signifying a river.

KYOOKS (*Cochinchinese*).—Zemindars.

LACK.—One hundred thousand.

LAKHERAJ.—Rent free.

LAKSHMI.—The Hindoo goddess of wealth.

LAMBALLIES.—Itinerant merchants in the Deccan.

LASCAR.—Properly a camp follower, but by Europeans a term applied to a native sailor.

LAUT.—A Malay word signifying the sea.

LECHEE.—In botany, the *scytala lichti.*

LOOTY.—A plunderer, the same as Pindary.

LUBBIES.—Mahomedans, named Moplays on the Malabar coast, and Lubbies at Madras.

LANCA.—This is an imaginary place, supposed to lie under the equator, somewhere S.W. of the island of Ceylon. It is one of the four cities (Yavacoti, Lanca, Romaca, and Siddhapuri) supposed to lie under the equator at ninety degrees distance from each other. In Hindoo astronomy, Lanca has neither

latitude nor longitude. Its meridian in European maps is 75° 53′ 15″ E. of Greenwich.

Maasha.—A maasha is a little more than the tenth part of a rupee in weight.

Madrissa.—A college for instruction in the Mahomedan law.

Maha.—Great.

Mahal.—A small district or department; a territorial subdivision; a ward of a town.

Mahwa or **Mohwa-tree.**—In botany, the *bassa latifolia.*

Maize.—In botany, *zea mays.*

Mawuis. — Among the Eastern Ghauts designates valleys between mountains.

Mahsoozars. — Landholders, renters, &c. paying revenue to government.

Malikana.—A subsistence granted to zemindars when the government take charge of their lands.

Mamool. — In revenue matters means usage, custom, the unwritten law.

Mango-tree.—In botany, the *mangifera indica.*

Mandirs — Temples, spires.

Mantras. — Charms, incantations, prayers, invocations.

Mash Kalai.— In botany, the *phaseolus radiatus.*

Masturi.—In botany, the *crenulena*

Matam.—A college.

Math *(or muth).*—A chapel or small temple, also a sect.

Mangrove *(the Malay Islands).*— In botany, the *rhizophora gymnorhiza;* it abounds chiefly where the fresh water of streams and rivers intermix with those of the ocean; one species extends along the sea-shore, with its roots growing entirely in salt water.

Meru. — This word seems to designate the terrestrial orb or yoke of the mundane egg.

Maumletdars —Persons who superintend the collection of the revenue, police, &c.

Maund.—A measure of weight in India. At Madras it weighs twenty-five pounds, and a double or pucka maund eighty. In Bengal the common maund may be estimated at eighty pounds, but the opium maund at only seventy-five pounds.

Mauza.—A village, estate, manor.

Me *(Siamese).*—Signifies mother.

Meerassy *(from the Arabic word miras).*—This term, originally signifying *inheritance,* is in the south of India employed to designate a variety of rights, all more or less connected with proprietary possession, or usufruct of the soil, or of its produce.

Meerassadars.— Proprietors of a village.

Melah.—A fair, or assembly of pilgrims, partly for religious and partly for commercial purposes.

Mew.—A Burmese affix, signifying a town, city, &c.

Milk-hedge.—In botany, the *euphorbia tirucalli*

Mirchee.—Red pepper, the *capsicum annuum*

Miwang *(Siamese).*—A town or place.

Mirza *(from ameerzadeh, the son of an ameer).*—A title which, when prefixed to a name, implies a secretary or civilian; but when it follows a name, designates a prince.

Missoy-bark —An aromatic bark, resembling cinnamon in flavour, found in New Guinea and the Papuan Isles, the powder of which is much used by the Javanese.

Mocurrery.—As applied to land, means land let on a fixed lease; a fixed assessment; perpetual lease.

Mofussil.—The subordinate divisions of a district, in contradistinction to sudder, which implies the seat of government; provincial, as distinguished from the capital or head-quarters.

Molunghees.—Salt-manufacturers.

Mocsha.—In Hindoo theology, liberation, escape from the body.

Mooda —A Malay word signifying young.

Moolookgery.—Tribute received to abstain from plundering.

Moong.—In botany, the *phaseolus mungo,* a species of kidney-bean.

MOTAHDARRY.—The permanent settlement as introduced by the British into the South of India.

MUCTI.—In Hindoo theology, final absorption.

MUGGADOOTIES.—A sort of cloth manufactured from wild silk.

MULMUL.—A thin sort of muslin.

MUNZIL.—A day's journey.

MUNJEET.—A species of Indian madder.

MUNSIFF.—A native judge or justice, whose decisions are limited to suits for personal property not exceeding fifty rupees.

MUFTI.—The Mahomedan law officer who declares the sentence.

MUNDUL.—A circle or division of a country; also the head man of a village.

MUSNUD.—A throne, chair of state.

MAHABHARAT (*the great war*).—A historical and mythological poem, which records the first eclipse mentioned in the Shastras.

NAAD—In Malabar a territorial subdivision.

NABOB (*pronounced Nawaub*)—A deputy or viceroy under the Mogul.

NAGUR, NAGORE, NUGGUR, and NAGARA—A town or city, the termination of many names.

NAM—A Siamese word signifying water, also a river.

NAMBURIES—Malabar Brahmins.

NACSHATRA—In Hindoo astronomy, a lunar mansion, which contains 13° 20′ of the circumference of the zodiac. A solar sign contains 2¼ nacshratra or mansions.

NAH—A Siamese word signifying a paddy field.

NANKAR—A grant to zemindars for their maintenance.

NASTIC—In Hindoo theology signifies heterodox, atheist, disowner of another world.

NAT—The spirits of the air.

NATCHENY—See Raggy.

NEEM TREE—In botany, the *melia azediruchta*.

NICH—Low in rank or religion.

NIRVANA (*Sanscrit*)—In metaphysics a profound calm, signifying also *extinct*. The notion attached to it by the Hindoos is that of perfect apathy, a condition of unmixed tranquil happiness or extacy. Other terms distinguish different gradations of pleasure, joy, and delight; but a state of imperturbable apathy is the ultimate bliss to which the followers of Brahma aspire. In this the Jain, the Buddhist, and orthodox Vedantin all concur; yet a perfect uninterrupted apathy can hardly be said to differ from an eternal sleep.

NISHADA (*Sanscrit*)—An outcast.

NIZAM—Order, arrangement, an arranger.

NIZAMUT ADAWLET—A court of criminal justice.

NUDDY—A river, the termination of many names.

NULLAH—A natural canal, or small branch of a river, also a streamlet, rivulet, or watercourse.

NUZZER or NUZZERANA—An offering or present made to a superior.

OM—A monosyllable of mystical import among the Lama Bhooteas and Tibetians.

OORREO—A species of kidney bean, the *phaseolus max*.

OSWALS—A sect of Jain heretics, who eat at night contrary to the Jain usage.

ORANG OUTANG—Malay words, signifying a wild man, and applied to a large species of ape.

PADMA—The true lotus or sacred bean lily; in botany the *nelumbium speciosum*.

PADDY—A Malay word, signifying rice in the husk.

PAGODA—This is a name applied by Europeans to Hindoo temples and places of worship, but not by the Hindoos themselves, who have no such appellation. It is the name also of a gold coin, principally current in the south of India, called Varaha by the Hindoos, and Hoon by the Mahomedans.

PACSHA (*a side*)—In Hindoo astronomy half the lunar month. Sucla pacsha, the time from the new to the full moon; Krishna pacsha, that from the full to the new moon.

or the wane. Each pacsha contains fifteen tit'his or lunar days, each distinguished numerically.

PAK—A Siamese word signifying mouth, debouchure.

PAGAH—The household horse, or body guard; the *elite* of a native army.

PANGLIMA LAUT—In Malay, an admiral.

PANGLIMA PRANG—In Malay, a general.

PANGERAN—In Malay, a nobleman.

PANT'HA—In Hindoo theology a path, road.

PANSH GAUDA BRAHMINS—Brahmins of the north of India.

PANCHANGA—A calendar

PARADARS — In Arracanese, under-tenants.

PARASURAMA *(era of)*—An account of time used on the Malabar coast from Mangalore to Cape Comorin. It derives its name from a monarch (one of the avataras or incarnations of Vishnu) who is supposed to have lived 1176 years before our Saviour. The 1,000th year of the third cycle of Parasurama ended on 14th September 1824; the following is the first day of the first year of the fourth cycle

PARAMHANGA—A gymnosophist or naked philosopher.

PARBUTTIES — Mountaineers, hill people.

PARUS PUTTAR — The philosopher's stone.

PARIAR—A term used in India by Europeans to designate the out-casts of the Hindoo tribes, and also any thing vile.

PATAN—A term generally applied in Hindostan to the Afghan tribes, but the derivation of which has never been satisfactorily ascertained.

PATEL—See Potail.

PATTEMARS—Malabar trading boats carrying about 500 Bengal maunds of rice.

PATRA—A calendar.

PATNAS—In Orissa, small villages are thus designated.

PAUN *(or betel-leaf plant)*—In botany the betel piper.

PEER—A Mahomedan saint.

PEON—A footman or foot soldier, generally employed in the revenue or police.

PERGUNNAH—See Circar.

PESHWA—A leader, the title of the late sovereign of the Poona Maharattas.

PETTAH—A town or suburb adjoining a fort. An extra-mural suburb.

PENANG *(Malay)*—Betel-nut

PERSAUD *(or Prasad)*—Food from the altar of a deity.

PESHCUSH — A Persian compound, signifying "first fruits," or rather that which is first extracted. It is the usual phrase for tribute.

PEEPUL TREE—In botany the *ficus religiosa.*

PERWANA—A license, order, &c.

PHOKE—A wild plant peculiar to the Bicanere district and its neighbourhood.

PICE —Small copper coins.

PINE-APPLE PLANT—In botany, the *bromelia ananas.*

PIASATH—The Burmese name for the spire of a pagoda or palace.

PITRI—Certain genii or spirits; also the spirits of deceased ancestors.

PLANTAIN—In botany the *musa paradisiaca.*

PINDA—A cake of rice and sweetmeats offered to expiate the sins of ancestors.

POLLAMS — Zemindaries, fiefs, districts held by poligars, also vallies between the ghauts.

POLIGARS — Small tributary landholders in the south of India, who were never thoroughly subdued by the Mahomedans.

POON—A Malay word signifying wood in general.

POOR *(Pura)*—A town place, or residence, the termination of many names in Bengal and the upper provinces.*

POTAILS *(or Patels)*—The head man of a village, who collects the rents, and has a general superintendence.

* In no East-Indian language whatever, has this syllable the sound of the English word *pore*.

Pritee Needhee—A *Maharatta* title, signifying the likeness or representative of the sovereign himself.

Prayaga—Holy junctions of two or more rivers, pronounced Prag.

Praw, or **Phra-chai-di**—In Ava and Pegu means a temple, pyramid, &c.

Prang—In Malay signifies a battle.

Pralaya—An universal deluge.

Pumplenose *(or Shaddock)*—In botany, the *citrus decumanus.*

Punchaits *(or Punchayet)*—A jury of arbitration usually consisting of five persons, from whose decision there is an appeal to the regularly constituted tribunals or courts of justice.

Pundit—A learned Brahmin.

Pucka—Ripe, complete, full or large measure—See Cutcha.

Purohit—An officiating priest.

Punjum Cloth—Consists of a certain number of threads that run lengthways through a piece of cloth.

Punjah—Dry grain land.

Putwary—A register.

Puranas—Certain Hindoo mythological poems.

Puggies—A village tribe, whose business it is to trace thieves by their footsteps.

Pykes—Foot messengers and watchmen; also the ancient militia under the zemindars.

Qualia *(or Kwala)*—A Malay word, signifying the mouth of a river.

Rahdary—Duty collected on cattle, &c.

Rahu—In Hindoo astronomy, the moon's ascending node.

Raja—King, prince, chieftain, nobleman, a title in ancient times given only to the military caste

Raja Mooda *(or young Raja)*—Among the Malays is equivalent to heir-apparent.

Rajbangsi—A phrase which, literally translated, means descendants of princes, but all over India it is a term used for a person of low birth.

Rajpoots *(from Raja putra, the offspring of a king)*—A name which, strictly speaking, ought to be limited to the higher classes of the military tribe, but which is now assumed on very slender pretences.

Rama—An avatara of Vishnu. Sir Wm. Jones places it 1810 years ante-Christum.

Rangri—A mixed dialect of Hindi in central India.

Ranny *(a corruption of rajni)*—A queen, princess, the wife of a raja.

Raggy—In botany, the *cynosurus corocanus.*

Rattan—In botany, the *calamus rotang.*

Ravi—A name of the sun.

Rawut—In Orissa, a leader.

Razinama—A deed of consent or acquiescence.

Rice—In botany, *oryza;* common rice, *oryza sativa.*

Rishi—A Hindoo saint or holy man.

Roohee—A fish of Bengal, the *rohit cyprinus.*

Rowanah—A permit or passport.

Rows—Titled Maharatta chiefs created by Sevajee.

Rubbee—A dry crop.

Rupee—The name of a silver coin of comparatively modern currency; for it is remarkable that there do not exist any specimens in that metal anterior to the establishment of the Mahomedan power in India, while a great many in gold have been preserved of far higher antiquity. In calculating the value of a sicca rupee in English money sixteen per cent. must be added to the sum, which converts it into current rupees (an imaginary coin valued at 2s.), ten of which go to the pound sterling. The East-India Company's accounts are kept at the following fixed rates of exchange, viz. 2s. the current rupee, 2s. 3d. the Bombay rupee, 5s. the Spanish dollar, 6s. 8d. the Chinese tael, and 8s. the pagoda.

Russud—A progressively increasing land-tax or jumma.

Ruth—A carriage on two low wheels drawn by bullocks.

RYOT—Peasant, cultivator, subject.

RYOTWAR—A money settlement with ryots of a village individually.

SABLE-FISH *(from sable, French)*—In ichthyology, a species of *clupea*; by the natives it is called the hilsa.

SACTI—A female energy, power, spirit, or demon. Worshippers of female deities or spirits, according to the Tantras, are Sactis.

SAHARA *(or zahara)*—An absolute and extensive desert.

SAGO-TREE *(sagu, Malay)*—In botany, the *palma farinifera*.

SANYOGI—A religious person who indulges openly in the pleasures of the world.

SANYASSIES—Hindoo devotees and mendicants.

SANSCRIT—The literal meaning of this word is *adorned*, and when applied to a language signifies *polished*.

SAPAN-WOOD—A wood employed for dyeing a fine red, or deep orange. In botany, the *cæsalpinia sappan*.

SARCARA—The Sanscrit name for manufactured sugar.

SAURUS—A very tall bird, the largest of the crane kind.

SAUL-TREE—In botany, the *shorea robusta*.

SALIVAHANA—The name of a prince said to have been born seventy-eight years after the beginning of the Christian era, and a descendant of Vicramaditya.

SAKA *(or Saca)*—The solar years expressed from the birth of Salivahana are called saka. The year saka, which expires in April 1828, is the 1750th; and the year that begins then is the 1751st.

SANCRANTI—In Hindoo astronomy, the day in which the sun enters a new sign.

SEPOY *(sipahi, Persian and Turkish)*—A name given in Hindostan to the native *infantry* soldiers in the British service. The spahies of the Turks are cavalry.

SAYER—Variable imposts, such as customs, duties, tolls, &c.

SEBUNDY—An irregular native soldier, or local militia-man, generally employed in the service of the revenue and police

SEER—A weight which varies all over India; in Bengal there are forty to a maund.

SERAI—A place of accommodation for travellers, thus named by the Mahomedans; the Hindoos call it *choultry* and *dhurrumsala*.

SEIDS—Descendants of Mahomed, through his nephew Ali and his daughter Fatima.

SERINJAMMY—A yearly allowance made to the collector of a district for incidental charges.

SEVEN RISHIS—In Hindoo astronomy, the constellation named the great bear.

SEACUNIES *(soukhanies, from soukhan, a helm)*—Helmsmen, steerers.

SEYURGHAL—A jaghire assignment, usually for life, on certain lands for the whole or part of the assessed revenue.

SHASTRAS *(or Sastras)*—An inspired or revealed book; also any book of instruction, particularly such as contain revealed ordinances.

SHROFF—A banker or money-changer.

SHIAS—In Mahomedan theology, adherents to the sect of Ali.

SHEREEFS—Descendants of Mahomed. See SEIDS.

SHAUBUNDER—A master attendant, or harbour-master, and generally the king's agent and merchant.

SHAMBOGUES—In Canara, village accountants.

SHINBIN—A teak plank or beam three or four inches thick.

SHEIKH—A Mahomedan title indicating a derivation from Arabia.

SIDDHANTA—A Sanscrit word which means 'settled.'

SIRKAR—See CIRCAR.

SISSOO-TREE—In Botany, the *dalbergia sissoo*.

SIRDAR—A chief, captain, leader.

SINGH—A lion, a distinctive appellation of the khetries or military caste, now assumed by many barbarous tribes converted by the Brahmins.

SIVA *(or Mahadeva)*—The third person of the Hindoo triad, in

the character of destroyer; he is a personification of time.

IVOTTAR — Land granted for the sake of Siva.

OONDRY-TREE—In botany, the *heritiera robusta.*

OONIES — The designation of that sect of Mahomedans who revere equally the four successors of Mahomed, while the Shias reject the three first as usurpers.

OOJEE MATI—A substance resembling natron. A species of earth impregnated with alkali; a native carbonate of soda or mineral alkali.

OUBAH—According to the institutes of Acber, a soubah should consist of twenty-two circars, a circar of twenty-two pergunnahs, a pergunnah of twenty-two tuppahs, and a tuppah of twenty-two villages; but probably this strictness of division never was carried into effect. See also CIRCAR.

OUBAHDAR—A viceroy or governor of a large province; also the title of a native sepoy officer, below an ensign, yet it is the highest rank he can attain.

RADDHA—A Hindoo rite in commemoration of ancestors.

RAWUKS (*Charvacas*)—The laity of the Jain sect.

UCLA PASCHA—In Hindoo astronomy, the first or enlightened half of the lunar month, the time from new moon to full moon.

UDDER—The chief seat or head-quarters of government, as distinguished from the mofussil, or interior of the country.

UDRA—The fourth caste among the Hindoos, comprehending mechanics and labourers. The subdivisions of this caste are innumerable.

UNN—The Bengal hemp plant. In botany, the *crotolaria juncea.*

UNGEI – A Malay word signifying a river.

UNGUM—In the Deccan and South of India means a conflux of two or more rivers, the same as Prayaga in Northern Hindostan.

UMBUT (*or Sumvat*)—A common year in the Hindoo calendar.

SUNNUD—A patent, charter, or written authority.

SUMERU — The northern hemispere; also a fabulous region above the north pole, where Indra presides over the Suras and Devatas.

SURAS — Benign spirits harbouring about the north pole, and governed by Indra.

SUTTIES—Self-burning of widows.

SUTRAS—Aphorisms.

SWETAMBER—A clothed Jain image, in contradistinction to Digamber, a naked one.

TAEL—A Chinese measure of value, which in the East-India Company's accounts is valued at 6*s*. 8*d*.

TALOOKDARS—Petty zemindars, some of whom pay their rent through a superior zemindar, while others pay it directly to government.

TANNA—A police station; also a military post.

TANNADAR—The keeper or commandant of a tanna.

TAJIK—In Afghanistan, a term applied to all people whose vernacular language is the Persian.

TANJIBS—Plain white muslins, forty cubits by two.

TANJONG (*or Ujong*) — A Malay word, signifying a point, cape, or head of land.

TARI (*or toddy*)—The fermented juice of the *borassus flabelliformis*, palmira tree.

TANNA —A Malay word signifying land, as Tanna Papua, Papua Land, or New Guinea.

TEE—An umbrella in general; also an umbrella of open iron work, covering the Buddhist pagodas of Ava and Pegu, from which a number of small bells are suspended.

TEZPACT—In Bengal cookery, the leaf of a species of native cinnamon.

TEHSILDAR—A native collector of a division, subordinate to the chief collector.

THUGS—A notorious class of public robbers in the upper provinces of Hindostan.

THULL—A sand-hill, desert.

THAKOORBARRIES—Little chapels dedicated to Hindoo deities.

Thakoor—A lord, chief, or baron.

Till *(or Teel)*—In botany, the *sesamum orientale.*

Tit'hi—In Hindoo astronomy, the one-thirtieth part of the time which the moon takes to move through a synodical revolution, whatever be its duration. It is considered as the time during which the moon's motion to or from the sun amounts to twelve degrees. The thirty tit'his of the month are divided into two parts, called pacshas, of fifteen tit'his each. The term is also applied to the anniversary day of the death of parents.

Tirthankar—Among the Jains a saint or lawgiver.

Tica—A mark of royal approbation which consists in having the forehead anointed with a preparation of bruized sandal-wood; also the streaks that particular classes draw on their brow over and on the nose.

Too-sze *(Chinese)*—A frontier station.

Topasses — Foot-soldiers, originally raised among the native Portuguese and other native Christians.

Toddy—See Tari.

Toour—In botany, the *cytis cajan* or pigeon-pea tree.

Tooman—A small district; also a horde.

Toolsee *(or tulasi)*—In botany, the *ocymum sanctum.*

Toon-tree—In botany, the *cedrila toona.*

Tripang—A black species of *holothuria.*

Traga *(or Tragala)*—Suicide; also an act of violence committed by the Bhauts and Bharots of Gujerat, sometimes on their own persons; at others, by putting some relative to death.

Tuan *(Malay)*—Sir, or gentleman.

Tuccavy—Advances made to the cultivators, &c.

Tulatee—In Gujerat, the village accountant.

Tusser—Silk procured in the forests from the wild silk-worm.

Turufs—Divisions, districts.

Ujong *(Malay)*—See Tanjong.

Upades—Religious initiatory instruction; also a sacred form of invoking God.

Uya—A species of grain found among the Himalaya, supposed to be either rye or a species of hill-rice.

Vaisya *(pronounced Byce)*—The third caste among the Hindoos, comprehending merchants, traders, and cultivators.

Vakeel—Ambassador, agent, or attorney.

Vakeel ul Mootulluk—Viceregent, an officer who exercised almost independent power under the emperors of Delhi.

Vedas—Science, knowledge; the sacred books of the Brahminical Hindoos, four in number, Rig, Sama, Yajur, and Atharvan.

Vedanta—Divinity.

Verma—An adjunct expressing a khetri or military descent

Veranda—The covering of a house extended beyond the main pile of building, and supported by pillars, forming an external passage or open terrace.

Vihar—A Buddhist convent.

Vira—Certain ghosts worshipped by the Hindoos.

Vicramaditya—An Indian prince, who is supposed to have ascended the throne fifty-seven years before our Saviour's birth. In the northern parts of India the natives count from the accession of Vicramaditya, but the era is little used in the peninsula.

Vishnu Priti—Land granted for the sake of Vishnu.

Vyasa *(pronounced Byas)*—The author or compiler of the Vedas, and lawgiver to the present race of Brahminical Hindoos. One chronology places this great personage 3,200 years ante-Christum, but his votaries assert he is still alive at Badryczarama, near the inaccessible source of the Ganges.

Vyakurn—In Sanscrit, grammar.

Yatis *(or Jatis)*—Officiating Jain priests.

Yams—In botany, the *dioscorea sativa*.

Yak—The choury or bushy-tailed bull, the *bos grunniens* of Linnæus.

Yug—Properly this word denotes the conjunction and sometimes the opposition of the planets, but more generally it signifies a long period of years, at the expiration of which certain phenomena or circumstances recur.

Zemindar—A landholder, a landkeeper.

Zemindary—An estate belonging to or under the jurisdiction of a zemindar.

Zendavesta—The sacred book of the Parsees.

Zillah—A local division of a country, a shire or county.

LIST OF AUTHORITIES.

Dr. Clarke Abel, of the Bengal Medical Establishment, and Physician to Lord Amherst—*Travels in China*—*Asiatic Researches.*

Abul Fazel, Minister to the Emperor Acber, and Author of the Ayeen Acberry—*Translated by Francis Gladwin, Esq.*

Abdul Russool, a Cashmerian merchant, of Lassa, in Tibet—*His information was communicated to Government by N. Macleod, Esq., and is in MS. at the India Board.*

Major P. Vans Agnew, superintendent in Choteesghur—*Manuscript Documents at the India Board*

John Ahmuty, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

Col. W. Adams, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Manuscript Documents at the India Board.*

Whitelaw Ainslie, Esq. of the Madras Medical Establishment—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

John Anderson, Esq. of the Civil Service at Prince of Wales' Island—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Asiatic Monthly Journal—Published by Messrs. Parbury, Allen, and Co.

Peter Auber, Esq. Assistant Secretary to the Court of Directors—*Analysis of the Constitution of the East-India Company.*

Francis Buchanan Hamilton, Esq. of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Travels in Mysore*—*Asiatic Researches*—*Account of Nepaul*—*MS. Surveys and Reports, &c.*

W. B. Bayley, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches*—*MS. Documents.*

Sultan Baber—*Memoirs of the Emperor Baber.*

W. Blunt, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Charles Buller, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

E. W. Blunt, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Richard Beecher, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Thomas Brooke, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

Charles Boddam, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Baillie, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Paris Bradshaw, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel E. S. Broughton, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain G. Birch, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Rodney Blane, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Burney, Ambassador to Siam, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain J. B. Blunt, of the Bengal Engineers—*Asiatic Researches.*

Captain Buckley, of the Bengal Establishment—*MS. at the India Board.*

Captain E. Broughton, of the Bengal Establishment—*Journal of a Residence in a Maharatta Camp.*

George Bogle Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Annual Register.*

J. T. Brown, Esq. of Bengal—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

The Rev. Claudius Buchanan—*Christian Researches in Asia.*

Reuben Burrow, Esq.—*Asiatic Researches.*

John Bruce, Esq.—*Annals of the East-India Company.*

Voyage de François Bernier.

Mr. Beaumont, of Bengal—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lord William Bentinck, Governor of Madras—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

Robert Bayard, Esq. of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Hugh Boyd, Esq. of Madras—*Asiatic Annual Register.*

Colonel W. Blackburne, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Valentine Blacker, of the Madras Military Establishment—*Memoir of the Operations of the British Army—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant Bayley, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Samuel Bourchier, of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

—— Babington, Esq. of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. S. Bellasis, Esq. of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain S. B. Burr, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Briggs, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Ballantine, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Mr. Boyer, of Bombay—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Bombay Courier Newspaper.

P. Breton, Esq. of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Medical Transactions.*

Messrs. Burton and Ward, Baptist Missionaries in Sumatra—*Asiatic Researches.*

John Barrow, Esq.—*Voyage to Cochin China—Travels in China.*

De Bissachere's Account of Tunquin.

Captain Bligh's Narrative.

Bougainville's Voyage round the World.

Henry Thomas Colebrooke, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service, President of the Asiatic Society, and Member of the Supreme Council—*Asiatic Researches—Agriculture of Bengal—The Algebra of the Hindoos—On the Import of Colonial Corn—Journal of the Royal Institution—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Marquis Cornwallis—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

Sir Edward J. Colebrooke, of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

Burrish Crisp, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

A. J. Colvin, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

The Rev. Dr. Carey—*Asiatic Researches.*

Mr. Carey jun. Missionary in Ava—*Public Journals.*

William Chambers, Esq.—*Asiatic Researches.*

Cemal Lochun Nundi, a Bengalese deputed to Assam—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Colebrooke, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Collins, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Major John Canning, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

John Crawfurd Esq., ambassador to Ava, Siam, and Cochin China—*History of the East-Indian Archipelago—MSS. at the India Board.*

Captain Hiram Cox, of the Bengal Establishment—*Notes on the Birman Empire.*

William Chaplin, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Honourable A. H. Cole, of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain R. Close, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

M. Christy Esq., of the Madras Medical Establishment—*Medical Reports.*

N. Crow Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Charles Christie, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Manuscript Journal communicated by Sir John Malcolm.*

Major J. R. Carnac, a Director of the East-India Company—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Copeland Esq., of the Bombay Medical Establishment—*Bombay Researches.*

W. S. Cracroft Esq., of the Civil Service, at Prince of Wales' Island,—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant S. C. Crooke, of Prince of Wales' Island—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Calcutta Monthly Journal.

John Crisp Esq., of the Bencoolen Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Samuel Davis, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*Asiatic Researches.*

John Francis Davis, Esq., of Canton—*Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society.*

J. Deane, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Robert K. Dick, of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

A. Davidson, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches.*

George Davidson, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment, Mint Master at Dacca and Calcutta—*Manuscript.*

Major-General Dirom—*Narrative of Campaigns in Mysore.*

Major Dow, of the Madras Military Establishment—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

Captain Dangerfield, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Manuscript and Printed Documents communicated by Sir John Malcolm,—Bombay Researches.*

Jonathan Duncan, Esq., Governor of Bombay—*Asiatic Researches.*

J. A. Dunlop, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Thomas Dickenson, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Ditto.*

Lieutenant Dominicite, of the Bombay Marine—*Printed Reports.*

Robert Drummond, Esq., of the Bombay Medical Establishment—*Guzeratte Vocabulary.*

John Davy, Esq., of the Ceylon Medical Establishment—*Travels in Ceylon—Printed Documents.*

Alexander Dalrymple, Esq., Hydrographer to the East-India Company—*The Oriental Repository.*

The Abbe Dubois—*Description of the Manners and Customs of India.*

Lieutenant Hastings Dare—*Marsden's Sumatra.*

The Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay—*Embassy to Cabul—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Edward Hyde East—*Asiatic Researches*

N. B. Edmonstone, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

John Eliot, Esq., of the Bengal Ci-

vil Service — *Asiatic Researches— MS. Documents at the India Board.*
John Ewer, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
John Ernst, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*
W. Erskine, Esq., of Bombay — *Bombay Transactions — Memoirs of the Emperor Baber.*
Colonel East, of the Bombay Military Establishment — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Eetul Punt, a Maharatta Envoy—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Evidence before Parliament, 1813.
Captain H. M. Elmore—*Navigation of the Indian Seas.*

John Fullarton, Esq., of Great Stanhope Street, Hyde Park—*Manuscript Notes extracted from the Journal of his Travels through Hindostan, during the years* 1817, 1818, 1819, *and* 1820.
Ferishta's History of Hindostan and the Deccan.
J. Fortescue, Esq. of the Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Wm. Fraser, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. French, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Forster's Journey Overland from Bengal to England.
N. Fontana, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*
Colonel Franklin, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *History of Shah Allum—Asiatic Researches—Tracts on the Rajpoot States. &c.*
Captain James Franklin, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society.*
Captain Fogo, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*
James Fraser, Esq.—*Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society—Travels in Khorasan—Tour in the Himalaya Mountains.*
Captain Flander's Voyage.
George Finlayson, Esq., Surgeon and Naturalist to the Mission to Siam and Cochin China.
Colonel Wm. Fullarton—*Campaigns in India.*
Colonel Fitzclarence—*Route through India and Egypt to England.*
James Forbes Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*Oriental Memoirs.*
Robert Fullerton, Esq., Governor of Prince of Wales' Island and the British provinces south-east of Rangoon—*MS. Documents and Reports deposited at the India Board.*
J. Fell, Esq., Surveyor of the Forests in Malabar—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Fra. Paolo Bartolomeo—*Voyage to the East-Indies.*
Captain Thomas Forrest—*Voyage to New Guinea—Account of the Mergui Isles.*

Charles Grant. Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*Observations on the State of Society among the Asiatic Subjects of Great Britain, &c.*
James Grant, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*
Francis Gladwin, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Translation of the Ayeen Acbery.*
J. D. Guthrie, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
The Honourable E. Gardner, of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
C. Græme, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. W. Grant, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
R. T. J. Glyn, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society.*
Maria Graham—*Journal of a Residence in India.*
Captain A. Gerard, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

J. G. Gerard, Esq. — *Asiatic Researches.*

Robert Grant, Esq. M.P.—*The Expediency maintained of continuing the Restrictions on the Trade to India.*

W. A. Gott, Esq.—*MS. Reports on the Ceded Districts of Oude, at the India Board.*

J. Goldingham, Esq.—*Asiatic Researches.*

H. S. Græme, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

I. A. Grant, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

R. T. Goodwin, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain J. S. Greenwood, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board*

Father Guiseppe's Account of Nepaul—*Asiatic Researches.*

The Marquis of Hastings, Governor-General, &c. — *Manuscript and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

John Herbert Harington, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches—Analysis of the Bengal Regulations—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Hayes, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Halhed, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board*

General T. Hardwicke, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

Major William Hamilton, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

The Right Rev. Reginald Heber, D.D., Bishop of Calcutta—*Journey through the Upper Provinces of India from Calcutta to Bombay, in 1824-5, with Notes on Ceylon, &c.*

Colonel Hodgson, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Herbert, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain William Henley, Resident at Bopaul—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

William Hunter, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

Hodges' Travels in India

John Hodgson, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Hurdis Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

James Hepburn, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

A. H. Hamilton, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Hanbury, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Thomas Hislop, Commander-in-Chief at Madras — *Printed Despatches.*

B. Heyne, Esq., of the Madras Medical Establishment — *MS. and Printed Documents.*

James Hallet, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Hawkins, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Mr. Hunt's Account of the Sooloo Isles—*Malay Miscellanies.*

Gavin Hamilton, Esq.—*Account of the Nicobars—Asiatic Researches.*

Captain John Hunter—*Voyage to Botany Bay.*

Colonel Ironside, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Annual Register.*

Captain F. Irvine, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Edward Ironside, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Ives' Journal of a Voyage to India.

R. J. Ibetson, Esq., of the Civil Service, at Prince of Wales' Island—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant N. Jones, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents.*

Major Johnstone, of his Majesty's Service—*Narrative of a Campaign in Ceylon.*

Johnston's Oriental Voyager.

Major Jackson—*Asiatic Researches.*

Robert Ker, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*

General Kirkpatrick — *Embassy to Nepaul.*

General A. Kyd, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Evidence before Parliament—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Knox, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Kishen Kant Bose — *MS. Account of Bootan at the India Board.*

Colonel Macdonald Kinneir, of the Madras Military Establishment, and Envoy at Teheraun—*Survey of Persia.*

Robert Kyd, Esq., of Calcutta—*MS. Report to Government on the Timber of Goalpara.*

Captain Achilles Kirkpatrick, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

T. M. Keate, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain King—*Cooke's last Voyage.*

Krusenstern's Voyage to Japan.

M. Klaproth—*Magazin Asiatique, &c.*

Charles Lloyd, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

William Locke, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Lowther, Esq. of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. P. Larkins, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Leckie, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Journal of a Route to Nagpoor.*

Antony Lambert, Esq.—*Asiatic Annual Register.*

Lord Lake, Commander-in-Chief in India—*Printed Papers relative to the Maharatta War.*

Captain Barre Latter, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

John Leyden, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

S. R. Lushington, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel William Lambton, of His Majesty's 33d Regiment—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents.*

M. Langlès — *Monumens Anciens et Modern de Hindoustan.*

Captain Francis Light, the first Governor of Prince of Wales' Island —*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Mr. Leal, Interpreter to the Detachment with the Burmese Prisoners —*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant Low, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Labillardière's Voyage in Search of La Peyrouse.

Sir George Leith's Account of Prince of Wales' Island.

Sir John Malcolm, Governor of Bombay—*Political History of India, History of Persia, Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents.*

The Earl of Minto, Governor-General—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Norman Macleod, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*

W. W. Massie, of the Bengal Civil Service—*Printed and Manuscript Documents at the India Board.*

John Melville, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Printed and Ma-*

nuscript Documents at the India Board.

William Moorcroft, Esq.—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Macrae, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Researches.*

Gilbert Macleod, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Manuscripts.*

Robert May, of Chinsura, Missionary —*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General Dyson Marshal, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General G. Martindale, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General Claude Martine, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Col. Thomas Morgan, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Doments at the India Board.*

Lieutenant Macartney, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Embassy to Cabul.*

J. Marjoribanks, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Thomas Munro, Governor of Madras—*Appendix to 5th Report —MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Mackenzie, of the Madras Engineers—*Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Munro, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Thomas Mariott, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Charles Ware Malet, of the Bombay Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches—Evidence before Parliament—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Morrison, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain James Macmurdo, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Bombay Researches—Unpublished MS. Journal—MS. Reports to Government.*

Captain William Miles, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Bombay Transactions—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Thomas Marshall, Esq., Statistical Reporter to the Bombay Government—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Major Moor, of the Bombay Military Establishment — *Narrative of a Campaign with Captain Little's Detachment—Hindoo Pantheon, &c.*

Captain H. A. Montgomerie, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain W. Maxfield, of the Bombay Marine—*MS. Journal communicated by Sir John Malcolm.*

J. Mill, Esq.—*History of British India.*

William Milburne, Esq. — *Oriental Commerce.*

The Missionaries—*Translation of the Ramayuna—other Printed Documents.*

Miscellaneous MSS. communicated by Sir John Malcolm.

Macpherson's History of the Trade to India.

The Travels of Marco Polo, translated by William Marsden, Esq.

Malay Miscellanies.

Medical Transactions.

— Maingy, Esq., Commissioner in the Conquered Provinces south of Rangoon—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

William Marsden, Esq.—*Account of Sumatra—Malay Dictionary and Grammar.*

Captain Mears—*Voyage to Nootka Sound.*

Thomas Newnham, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Charles Norris, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

General Sir David Ochterlony, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Orme's History of the Military Transactions in Hindostan.
George Oswald, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. C. Oakley, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*
— Oakes, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Oriental Herald, edited by J. S. Buckingham, Esq.

J. D. Paterson, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches—MS. and Printed Documents.*
Henry T. Prinsep, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Narrative of the late Political and Military Events under the Administration of the Marquis of Hastings.*
Public Manuscript Despatches and Reports from the three Presidencies, deposited at the India Board.
P. W. Pechell, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
F. Pierard, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
W. Parker, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Police Reports, MS. and Printed.
Captain C. Patton, Commissioner in Arracan—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. F. Peile, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
G. L. Prendergast, of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. H. Pelley, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
H. S. Pearson, of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Captain Henry Pottinger, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board—Narrative of a Journey through Baloochistan.*
Captain Pope, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Printed Documents.*
W. E. Philips, Esq., Governor of Prince of Wales' Island — *MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Captain Percival's Account of Ceylon.
Anquetil du Perron—*View of the Commerce and Politics of India.*
Public Periodical Printed Journals and Newspapers.
La Page's Voyage round the World.

Major Rennell's Memoir of a Map of Hindostan.
J. Richardson, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Richard Rocke, of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. M. Rees, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Henry Russell, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
A. Ross, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Christopher Roberts, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
— Routledge, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. G. Ravenshaw, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*Appendix to the Fifth Report.*
C. R. Ross, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
F. W. Robertson, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
G. E. Robertson, of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Major Edward Roughsedge, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Captain F. V. Raper, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches—MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Lieutenant A. Ross, of the Bengal

Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Byrom Rowles, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

John Romer, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain Archibald Robertson, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Captain H. D. Robertson, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Thomas Raffles—*History of Java, &c.*

Fifth Report on the Affairs of the East-India Company and the Appendix.

Report on the External Commerce of India for 1811-12.

Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews.

Dr. Robertson's Disquisition on India.

W. Roxburgh, Esq. of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Sir Henry Strachey, Bart., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report, and MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Archibald Seton, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Thomas Sisson, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Shakespeare, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. W. Sage, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board*

J. Stracey, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

C. Smith, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Sir Alexander Seton, Bart., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

W. T. Smith, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

C. T. Sealy, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

G. Swinton, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

D. Scott, Jun. Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Col. Michael Symes, of his Majesty's 76th Regiment—*Embassy to Ava.*

J. Scott, Esq.—*Translation of Ferishta's History of the Deccan: of the Memoirs of Eradut Khan, with notes.*

Major Charles Stewart, of the East-India College at Haileybury—*History of Bengal.*

Capt. Shaw, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Capt. Sutherland, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents communicated by Sir J. Malcolm.*

Major Snodgrass, of his Majesty's Service—*Narrative of the Burmese War.*

Capt. Sykes, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*Bombay Transactions.*

Seid Gholaum Hossein—*The Seir ul Mutakherein.*

Sonnerat—*Voyage aux Indes et à la Chine.*

Sidi Ali Ben Hossein, a Mahomedan Traveller in A.D. 1554—*Bombay Transactions.*

H. Salt, Esq.—*Lord Valentia's Travels.*

Capt. A. Stoneham, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Capt. Thomas Sydenham, of the Madras Military Establishment—*Evidence before Parliament—MS. Documents at the India Board.*

A. L. Smith, Esq., of the Madras Medical Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

N. H. Smith, Esq., Envoy to the Ameers of Sinde—*Unpublished MS. Journal, communicated by Sir John Malcolm.*

James Sutherland, Esq. of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. S. Sparrow, Esq., of the Bombay

Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Capt. Seton, of Bombay—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Seid Mustapha, Envoy from Tippoo to Zemaun Shah—*MS. Narrative of a Journey to Candahar and Cabul in 1798, communicated by Sir John Malcolm.*
Sunderjee Sewjee, Government Agent from Bombay in the Gujerat Peninsula—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
The Singapoor Chronicle.
Lieut. Spiers, Capt. of a Country Ship—*MS. Narrative at the India Board.*
Sir George Staunton, Bart.—*Embassy to Pekin with Lord Macartney.*
Stavorinus' Voyages, *with notes by the Translator, Mr. Wilcocke.*
Capt. Turner, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Embassy to Tibet.*
The Rev. W. Tennant—*Indian Recreations.*
George Thomas, history of, by Col. Franklin.
William Thackeray, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report—MS. Documents at the India Board.*
G. F. Travers, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
J. O. Tod, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Tone's Account of the Maharattas.
G. F. Tomb—*Observations in Java, edited by Sonini.*
Turpin's Histoire du Royaume de Siam.

Lord Teignmouth, Governor-Gen.—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*
Henry St. George Tucker, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*Printed Document.*
R. Turner, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*
G. W. Trail, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. and Printed Documents at the India Board.*
T. Thornhill, Esq., a Director of the East-India Company—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Alfred Tufton, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
E. Thompson, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*
Col. Towers, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*
Col. James Tod, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Transactions of the R. Asiatic Society—MS. Documents.*
Major Thorn, of his Majesty's Service—*Description of Java, &c.*
Lieut. Trant, of his Majesty's Service—*Two Years in Ava.*
Capt. Tickell, of the Bengal Engineers—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Upton, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*
Lord Valentia's Travels.
Henry Verelst, Esq., Governor General—*Review of the Government of Bengal.*
H. W. Voysey, Esq., Physician to Colonel Lambton's Survey—*Printed and MS. Documents.*

The Marquis of Wellesley, Governor General—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*
The Duke of Wellington—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Sir Henry Wellesley (Lord Cowley)—*Printed and MS. Documents at the India Board.*
Charles Wilkins, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*Asiatic Researches.*
Horace Hayman Wilson, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*
J. Wintle, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
P. M. Wynch, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*
A. Wright, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Wauchope, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

A. Welland, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Major Wilford, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*Asiatic Researches.*

Captain W. S. Webb, of the Bengal Military Establishment — *Asiatic Researches—Printed Documents.*

Captain Thomas Williamson, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*The East-India Vade Mecum.*

Lieutenant R. S. White, of the Bengal Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

J. Wade, Esq., of the Bengal Medical Establishment — *Asiatic Annual Registers.*

C. N. White, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*Appendix to the 5th Report.*

C. Woodcock, Esq., of the Madras Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Wallace, of his Majesty's Service—*Printed Reports on the Maharatta War.*

Colonel Mark Wilks, of the Madras Military Establishment — *History of the South of India.*

Captain J. S. Lloyd Williams, of the Madras Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel John Warren, of his Majesty's Service — *The Kala Sankalita — Asiatic Researches.*

Francis Warden, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Colonel Alexander Walker, of the Bombay Military Establishment—*MS. Documents at the India Board.*

Lieutenant White, of the American Navy—*A Voyage to Cochin China.*

The Reverend W. Ward—*Account of the Religion and Manners, &c. of the Hindoos.*

Zuniga's History of the Philippines, translated by W. Mavor, Esq.

INDEX.

P. signifies province; D. district; T. town; R. river; I. Isle.

BENGAL, P.
vol. i. p. 173.

BERAR, P.
vol. i. p. 217.

BOOTAN.
vol. i. p. 270.

BORNEO,
vol. i. p. 278.

CANARA, P.
vol. i. p. 333.

CANDEISH, P.
i. 343.

CARNATIC, P.
vol. i. p. 369.

CASHMERE, P.
vol. i. p. 366.

CELEBES, I.
vol. i. p. 377.

CEYLON, I.
vol. i. p. 380.

EASTERN ISLES.

GUJERAT, P.
vol. i. p. 601.

GUNDWANA, P.
vol. i. p. 615.

HINDOSTAN, NORTHERN.
vol. i. p 600.

MAGINDANAO, I.
vol. ii. p. 155.

MALABAR, P.
vol. ii. p. 174.

MALACCA PENINSULA.
vol. ii. p. 184.

MALWA, P.
vol. ii. p. 84.

MOOLTAN, P.
vol. ii. p. 239

INDEX. 767

MYSORE, P.

vol. ii. p. 266.

NEPAUL.

vol. ii. p. 302.

ORISSA, P.

vol. ii. p. 345.

OUDE, P.
vol. ii. p. 340.

PAPUA.
vol. ii. p. 372.

PHILLIPPINES.
vol. ii. p. 390.

RIVERS.

THE END.